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THE CITIZENS BOOK

THE CINCINNATI CHAMBER OF COMMERCE
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THE CITIZENS BOOK

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CINCINNATI CHAMBER OF COMMERCE

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THIS IS A BOOK FOR THE CITIZEN;

FOR THE CITIZEN WHO WOULD KNOW WHAT HIS CITY WAS, WHAT IT IS AND HOW IT BECAME SO; FOR THE CITIZEN WHO WANTS HIS CITY TO GROW BETTER, WHO HAS IDEALS FOR ITS IMPROVEMENT, OR WHO IS SEEKING FOR SUCH IDEALS; FOR THE CITIZEN WHO IS WILLING, WORKING WITH OTHERS, TO HELP MAKE CINCINNATI A COMMUNITY WHICH CONTRIBUTES THE GREATEST POSSIBLE GOOD TO EACH OF ITS MEMBERS.

Preface

Cities become greater as their people take intelligent interest in public affairs.

While interest may be aroused through curiosity, it becomes intelligent interest only when developed by the aid of knowledge.

But people have found great difficulty in learning the facts about their city, its community life, its government, its institutions.

It is to furnish a source of such information that this book has been prepared. It contains much that can not be found in print elsewhere. It has been produced by the cooperation of the Chamber of Commerce, the Public Schools, and the contributors who wrote the original drafts of many of the chapters.

In its preparation an effort has been made to use Cincinnati as a type of community life. Underlying principles and constructive methods are discussed. The obligations of the citizen to the city, as well as those of the city to the citizen, are set forth.

Special effort has been made to secure accuracy of statement and to avoid ambiguity. Some of the chapters appear almost as originally written by their contributors; others have been abridged, or amplified, or materially modified both in subject matter and treatment, to conform to the general plan of the book.

Among those to whom the editors are deeply indebted for contributions, suggestions, and criticisms are the following, without whose help this book would have been impossible:

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If it serves to quicken public spirit and to stimulate a stronger desire for cooperation, if it helps to bring about a greater feeling of personal responsibility, this book will fulfill its mission.

The Editors.

January 15, 1916.

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Foundations of Community Life

CHAPTER I

The Geography of Cincinnati

Surrounding Region.—North of Cincinnati for several hundred miles extends a nearly flat plain, once well forested. It is cut into hills at certain parts, always near the larger streams.

IN EARLY TIMES, A CENTER OF FLOUR MANUFACTURE

This plain is the eastward extension of the chief farming district of the United States.

For an equal distance to the south is a hilly country surrounding the Blue Grass Region, an oval area forty to sixty miles in diameter, with a mildly rolling surface and very fertile soil.

The forests of these areas, once containing much hickory, made Cincinnati a leading center of buggy manufacture. This city was even then an important hardwood market, but has now become one of the greatest hardwood markets in the United States. The local supply of hickory and oak has been exhausted, but the great hardwood forests of the South find their outlet

in Cincinnati. What is called mast, consisting of acorns, hickory nuts, and other small nuts, and later the corn raised in this region, made Cincinnati a center of pork production. In a similar way the large production of grain made it early a center of flour milling and whiskey distilling.

Communications.—The Ohio River is the natural highway of Cincinnati. The city is situated at the crossing of the river by a north and south land route, comprising the Licking Valley to the south and Mill Creek and Miami Valleys to the north. This line of valleys caused, in succession, a concentration of Indian trails, then of wagon roads, finally of canals and railroads. No other equally favorable north and south route crosses the Ohio River.

THE OHIO, A NATURAL HIGHWAY, WHICH MAKES COAL TRANSPORTATION SO CHEAP

Within the area adjoining Cincinnati there is little of mineral resources except clay for brick, building stone, sand, and gravel for local use; but the presence of the Ohio River makes coal transportation so cheap and easy that the coal fields of Pennsylvania, West Virginia, and eastern Kentucky, producing the finest coal in the United States, may be regarded as part of its environment.

Site.—A plateau about 900 feet above sea level is trenched by the Ohio River to 430 feet above sea level. This trench has steep bluffs, the sides generally less than a mile apart, but at the point where the city stands the bluffs are more than two miles apart. The Little Miami River, Mill Creek, and Duck Creek occupy much broader and shallower trenches. These

were made before the glacial period, when the chief streams flowed in different beds from those now occupied by them. The bluffs of these trenches are cut into hills by ravines or valleys. Back a few miles from the bluffs the upland is nearly level.

Within these trenches are terraces of sand and gravel. On such a terrace stands the business section of Cincinnati, 100 feet above the river, but still 300 feet below the adjacent uplands. These uplands in recent years have been made into the residence sections of the city. As elsewhere, the bluffs are scalloped by side valleys which subdivide the plateau sections of the city.

Influence of Environment.—The peculiar features of the site are the cause of much that is distinctive in the plan of Cincinnati and its daily life. The location of the first roads to distant villages, Gilbert Avenue, Montgomery Road, Madison Road, Reading Road, Vine Street (Carthage Pike), and Harrison Avenue, were determined by the location of side valleys. Many villages, including Walnut Hills, Woodburn, Evanston, Avondale, Corryville, and Westwood, grew up along these roads. The slope of the steep bluffs overlooking the city has almost prohibited road making at certain points, with the result that these have been but sparingly occupied by homes of a humble sort. In some places where valleys do not furnish an easy grade, the traffic up and down these slopes is by inclined planes.

SOME TRAFFIC UP THE SLOPES IS BY INCLINED PLANES

One of the distinctive features of Cincinnati is its origin in a great number of independent communities or villages, each

occupying its own hilltop or valley, and separated from its neighbors by topographical conditions peculiar to the locality. The former villages, now a part of the city, include Clifton, Mt. Auburn, Walnut Hills, Price Hill, Westwood, Hyde Park, Evanston, Pleasant Ridge, Cumminsville, Brighton, Columbia, and others. An inheritance from this condition of separate communities is the large number—forty or more—of local improvement associations which are formulating and expressing public opinion.

A further influence of the peculiar topography of Cincinnati is found in the extraordinary number of large and beautiful private grounds surrounding suburban homes. Although the lower section of the city gradually became crowded with business houses, yet above and beyond the bluffs there was no lack of room. But much of the area was dissected by ravines, making it difficult to construct streets. Without streets regularly platted small lots could not be laid out. This led naturally to the building of residences with large grounds. With increasing density of population, new streets have been graded, and many of the old homesteads have been subdivided.

The peculiar character of the city's parks is determined by the same principle. Eden Park, Burnet Woods, and the University campus occupy areas of deep and beautiful ravines. The ultimate park plan includes the steep slopes of the now unsightly bluffs, and the finished plan will make Cincinnati unique among cities of the United States.

The lower portion of the city east of Mill Creek Valley (about four square miles) is still far too large to be used exclusively for business. As a residence district, it is decadent. The price of ground, however, is much too high to admit of private yards. Much of this area is therefore occupied by buildings, two to four stories high, the first floor being used for small stores and shops and the upper floors for homes. Residence is much congested in this part of the city. The main business of the city is greatly congested within a small downtown district which has no natural limits. The streets within this district are among the most crowded of any in the United States.

Encircling the greater part of the city is a strip of low ground composed of all or parts of several valleys, the Ohio Valley on the south, the Little Miami Valley on the east, the Mill Creek Valley on the west, and a preglacial valley connect-

ing the two latter, and extending through Norwood and the northern part of Cincinnati. Manufacturing tends more and more to occupy this low strip. The railroads are necessarily there also. The lower part of Mill Creek Valley is in part occupied by railroads and factories and in part is waste ground. It is adapted by nature for the development of a great river harbor.

CHAPTER II

The Settlement at Columbia

Benjamin Stites in the Miami Country.—The founding of Cincinnati and its early growth were both a part of the great westward movement which was made possible by the defeat of the French under Montcalm on the Plains of Abraham in 1759. That event opened up all the country formerly controlled by the French. It made possible the movement of English-speaking people across the Appalachian Mountains to establish new settlements within the Ohio River basin. Within a very few years after the Treaty of Paris in 1763 the backwoodsmen of the Alleghanies were building their log cabins on the Tennessee headwaters, and were cutting a bridle path through the wilderness beyond to the land of promise in Kentucky. Thirteen years afterward these early Kentucky settlements had developed into prosperous and permanent communities, even before the New Englanders had built Campus Martius (now Marietta) at the mouth of the Muskingum, and before the New Jerseymen, under the lead of Symmes, Stites, and Denman, began to occupy the Miami country. The Kentuckians were thus in a position to furnish substantial aid to the Ohio pioneers who built their first cabins between the Big and Little Miami Rivers.

In the same year that the famous ordinance providing for a government of the territory northwest of the Ohio was passed, a certain brave frontiersman, Benjamin Stites, of Red Stone, now Brownsville, Pennsylvania, took the leading part in an adventure in the western wilderness that led to the founding of a second group of settlements north of the Ohio River. The Kentucky settlements already had become sufficiently populous and so prosperous as to be able to purchase products of older communities in considerable quantities, and traders from the Ohio headwaters in western Pennsylvania had begun to find it

profitable to ship flatboat loads of merchandise to Limestone (now Maysville), to be transported thence to the settlements in the Blue Grass region of Kentucky.

Stites, a typical American frontiersman of great strength and courage, and full of energy, was one of these flatboat traders. He was a native of New Jersey. While young he had emigrated to western Pennsylvania, and had taken an active part in the Indian wars and already had become a captain of militia.

On one of his trading expeditions he carried the goods which he had for sale a few miles into the country from Limestone to the village of Washington, where friends from his native town had settled some time before. Now at that time the Indians were very troublesome to the Kentucky settlements. Just before his arrival a band of savages had come down from their Indian villages in the upper Miami Country, crossed the Ohio at the mouth of the Licking, invaded the settlements in the neighborhood of Washington, and carried off several valuable horses belonging to the settlers. Stites was selected as leader of a party to go in pursuit of the Indian horse thieves. The trail of the Indians led them down the Ohio River to a point just below where the town of Augusta now stands. Here the Indians had constructed a raft, crossed the river, and made for their villages near the headwaters of the Miami Rivers. Stites and his party followed the example of the Indians, crossed over to the Indian side of the river, pursued the trail up the Little Miami River about seventy miles, and finally reached Old Chillicothe (now Old Town), an Indian village three miles north of where Xenia now stands. Stites and his band neither caught the Indians nor recovered their horses; but the expedition revealed to the frontiersman some very beautiful scenery and large tracts of rich soil. He determined to possess part of that fine Miami Country, and himself to found a settlement there. He therefore closed out his business in Kentucky, proceeded to New York, where Congress was then in session, and began negotiations for the purchase of land in the Miami country.

The Miami Purchase.—As Stites was neither prominent nor rich, it became necessary for him to join with some person of character and influence who would take the lead in promoting the deal. He was fortunate in finding such an individual in the person of John Cleves Symmes, at that time a member of Congress from Trenton, New Jersey.

Stites told Symmes of the richness and beauty of the Miami Country. He unfolded to him his plan of purchasing a large tract of land between the two Miamis and founding a settlement there. Symmes soon became intensely interested, and in the summer of 1787, while the Constitutional Congress was still sitting at Philadelphia, and while the Ordinance of 1787 was under consideration at New York, he, with five companions, took a trip to the Miami Country and descended the Ohio as far as the falls. Symmes returned to the East as enthusiastic as Stites, and proceeded to organize a company for the purchase of land and the colonization of the Miami Country.

Symmes began his negotiations on August 29, 1787. This he did by sending a memorial to Congress asking for the location of lands between the Great Miami and Little Miami Rivers. The original scheme contemplated the purchase of two million acres, but the survey included ultimately only about six hundred thousand acres. It comprised, however, all the territory between the Miamis as far north as where the town of Lebanon now stands.

Symmes, in the meantime, feeling sure that negotiations would terminate with satisfaction to himself, began to advertise lands and make grants conditioned on the completion of his contract with Congress. He promised to give lot No. 29 in each township for purposes of religion. Schoolmasters capable of discharging with propriety the duties of instructors were promised the free use and benefit in each township of lot No. 16. One complete township was set aside for the establishment of a college. Purchasers had the privilege of selecting their own sites, and were to pay one dollar per acre, subject to reduction for bad land and incidental charges.

Without waiting for the completion of his contract, which in fact was not effected until in September, 1794, Symmes left that matter with Jonathan Dayton, and in July, 1788, with fourteen four-horse wagons and sixty people, set out for the West. He and his party were nearly a month in traversing the miserable mud road that led through an almost uninhabited country from Philadelphia to Pittsburgh. Fortunately, no mishaps were encountered greater than the breaking of several axletrees. Symmes and his party reached Limestone early in September. There they lingered to await the arrival of troops that were to protect the settlement from the Indians.

The Founding of Columbia.—While Symmes thus delayed, Benjamin Stites was active in establishing the first settlement in the Miami Country. After Symmes had commenced negotiations for the purchase of land, he sold ten thousand acres to Stites in the southeastern part of the purchase, bordering on the Little Miami and the Ohio rivers. It was here that Stites determined to found his colony.

During the early autumn of that year (1788), they were busy sawing out lumber and making arrangements for the immediate erection of shelter for the colonists. On November 16, they left Limestone. For two days they floated between the forest-covered banks of the Ohio, and at daybreak of the 18th arrived at the mouth of the Little Miami. Three men then

SITE OF THE ORIGINAL SETTLEMENT OF COLUMBIA

went cautiously forward in a canoe to reconnoiter and see if Indians were in the neighborhood of the present settlement. If so, they were to signal the flatboat to keep near the Kentucky shore. No Indians were found. The canoe was therefore put to shore about three quarters of a mile below the mouth of the Little Miami. The flatboat with its little band of pioneers soon followed. And here was begun Columbia, the first settlement in the Miami Country, about where East Columbia now stands.

According to Ezra Ferris, the party, "after making fast the boats, ascended the steep bank and cleared away the underbrush in the midst of a pawpaw thicket, where the women and children sat down. They next . . . placed sentries at a small distance from the thicket, and having first united in a song of praise to Almighty God, . . . upon their bended knees they offered thanks for the past, and prayer for future protection."

This resolute band of settlers who braved the dangers of the

wilderness deserve to be remembered as the pioneers who made the beginning of Cincinnati, the great metropolis of the Central Ohio Valley.

This landing of Stites' party at Columbia was celebrated July 4, 1889, by the dedication of a monument to the first boatload of pioneers. The monument stands in the old Columbia cemetery, on a knoll overlooking Turkey Bottom, skirted on one side by the Pennsylvania Railroad and bordered on the other by a large glass factory. It consists of a freestone base surmounted by a fluted column. This column was a part of the old Cincinnati postoffice building at Fourth and Vine Streets, where later stood the Chamber of Commerce Building. This site is now occupied by the Union Central Building. On one side of the pedestal of the monument is engraved these words: "To the Pioneers Landing Near This Spot, November 18, 1788." On the opposite side is: "To the first boatload of pioneers landing near this spot—Major Benjamin Stites, Mrs. Benjamin Stites, Ben Stites Jr., Rachel Stites, Ann U. Stites, Greenbright Baily, Mrs. Greenbright Baily, James F. Baily, Reason Baily, Abel Cook, Jacob Mills, Jonathan Stites, Ephraim Kibby, John S. Gano, Mrs. Mary Gano, Thos. C. Wade, Hezekiah Stites, Elijah Stites, Edmund Buxton, Daniel Shoemaker, ——— Hempstead, Evan Shelby, Allen Woodruff, Hampton Woodruff, Joseph Cox, Benjamin Cox."

MONUMENT TO THE FOUNDERS OF COLUMBIA

The list has been criticized as being incomplete or inaccurate, but whether so or not, it contains the names of some of the brave leaders to whom the present inhabitants of Cincinnati owe a lasting debt of gratitude.

The Columbia settlers at once proceeded to construct a block house near the place of landing. The first rude building erected by the Miami settlers was 18 feet wide and 24 feet long, and contained but two rooms. It was a log cabin built in the usual way of rough, round logs notched at the corners. It had

a puncheon floor and a roof of split logs secured by wooden pins. The attic projected over the lower story, and was provided with loopholes for rifles. A large stone chimney rose through the middle of the gable farthest from the river. Within, the fireplace was large enough to take in a log four feet long.

Food Supplies.—As in all new settlements, the first winter was one of considerable hardship for the settlers. Supplies were short, and because of this and other causes, there was suffering among the pioneers. But when their breadstuffs gave out, the women and children dug the bulbous roots of the bear grass in Turkey Bottom, dried them, pounded them into a coarse meal, and used this meal as a substitute for corn. Fortunately, however, there was an abundance of wild game in the forest. Fish also were plentiful in the river. So passed the first winter without disaster. When spring came the settlers

WHERE COLUMBIA SETTLERS RAISED THEIR FIRST CORN CROP

began the planting of their first crop. Half of the men worked in the fields while the other half kept guard to prevent a possible attack of the Indians. They were more fortunate than most pioneers, for they found a tract of about 640 acres already cleared along the Little Miami about a mile and a half above its mouth, which for years had been cultivated by the Indians for growing corn. The Indians had, however, abandoned it. Here the settlers raised their first crop on what they called Turkey Bottom, so called because of the great number of wild turkeys found in these lowlands. This little clearing has long since widened into vast and productive cornfields that may be seen on the eastern edge of the present Columbia. But the name Turkey Bottom, with an indefinite boundary, still clings to that broad expanse of low bottom land.

Church and School.—For two or three years Columbia was the largest settlement in the Miami Country. By the close of

1790 it contained about fifty cabins. The appearance and arrangement of its buildings already surpassed those of other settlements. The population was made up of people of high character, who did not delay longer than necessary in establishing first, a place of worship, and then a school. Numerous ministers visited Columbia and preached to the settlers within the first year. In the spring of 1790 Elder Stephen Gano, of Virginia, while visiting relatives in Columbia, organized the Columbia Baptist Church. The present Hyde Park Baptist Church, of Cincinnati, claims to be a lineal descendant of this first religious organization in the Miami Country.

For some time the meeting place of the new church was the dwelling of Benjamin Davis. Later Major Stites gave a lot to the church organization, on which was built a frame structure 30 by 36 feet. This building was first occupied in 1793. It stood until 1835, when it was torn down.

The founding of the first church at Columbia was soon followed by the establishment of a school. June 21, 1790, is the date. John Reily, a soldier of the Revolution from North Carolina, was the first schoolmaster. Mr. Reily removed to Cincinnati in 1794, and became deputy clerk to the territorial Legislature and clerk of the Common Pleas Court and of the Supreme Court, and also recorder of the county. He died in 1850, at the age of eighty-seven.

Major Stites had great hopes for the growth of Columbia into a great city. But these hopes were never realized. For over a mile along the Ohio and stretching back three quarters of a mile from the river Stites laid out the streets and squares of his proposed city. And although all of this territory is now within the corporate limits of Cincinnati, much that was thus platted continues to be occupied by cornfields and garden patches. The modern Columbia lies considerably further down the river than the original settlement.

CHAPTER III

The Founding of Losantiville

The First Boatload.—Women and children were among the earliest pioneers who founded the settlement of Columbia. Men alone composed the first boatload of adventurers who, on Christmas Day, 1788, left the little settlement of Limestone (now Maysville, Ky.), and for four days, amid floating ice, dropped down the Ohio to a spot opposite the mouth of the Licking River. It was here they founded the town of Losantiville, afterwards called Cincinnati. They were: James Carpenter, William McMillan, John Vance, Robert Caldwell, Sylvester White, Sam Mooney, Henry Lindsay, Joseph Thornton, Noah Badger, Thaddeus Bruen, Daniel Shoemaker, Ephraim Kibby, Thomas Gizzel, William Connell, Joel Williams, Samuel Blackburn, Scott Travers, John Porter, Frank Hardesty, Mathew Fowler, Evan Shelby, Israel Ludlow, and Robert Patterson.

The Denman Purchase.—The founding of this second settlement in the Miami Country was the direct result of the combined effort of Mathias Denman, of New Jersey, and several leading Kentuckians. John Cleves Symmes had sold to Denman a tract of about 740 acres opposite the mouth of the Licking River. For this tract Denman paid five shillings per acre in continental scrip. On this original Denman tract is now located most of the business section of Cincinnati; and the same land will sell to-day for from $50 to more than $6,000 per front foot. The boundary of the tract is as follows: Beginning at about the foot of Broadway, thence north on the section line to about where, if extended, Burnet Avenue would intersect Liberty Street; thence due west a mile along Liberty Street to a point two hundred feet west of Central Avenue; thence south to the river to a point a little east of the point where Park Street continued would intersect the river; thence along the river to the point of beginning. The original Denman tract comprised what is now entire section 18 and fractional section 17.

Denman's object was to establish a ferry. In selecting the site he showed an appreciative knowledge of the geography of the Miami Country and adjoining territory. The Licking furnished a good route to the Kentucky settlements, while up Mill Creek Valley was an easy grade to the interior north of the Ohio River. The Indians of the Miami head waters and of the Maumee Valley had used this as their principal route in making their raids into Kentucky.

Denman, Patterson, Filson, and Ludlow.—Denman associated with himself in the purchase two others—Col. Robert Patterson and John Filson, of Lexington, Ky. These three men are frequently spoken of as the founders of Cincinnati, and although not altogether deserving the title, they are worthy of considerable notice in that connection. The fourth—Ludlow—joined later.

Denman was in no sense a pioneer. He was in fact only interested in Losantiville as a speculator in western lands. He neither lived on his purchase nor did he remain in the West more than a short time after the founding of the Losantiville settlement.

Colonel Robert Patterson, a representative Kentuckian, a bold frontiersman, and an able executive, was a man who would have been a leader and a man of thrift in any environment. He was perhaps the most able of the Losantiville founders, and may be regarded as more the leader of the settlement than any other of the party.

But perhaps the most interesting and by far the most romantic character among the founders of Losantiville was the schoolmaster, John Filson, who had come to Kentucky from Pennsylvania in 1783. In Kentucky he soon became acquainted with the famous guide and frontiersman, Daniel Boone, and other pioneers, from whom he learned the exciting story of the founding of that commonwealth. He published it in a book at Wilmington, Delaware, in 1785, and thus became the first historian of Kentucky and the original biographer of Boone. It was Filson who gave the new settlement its name, Losantiville. The name was afterward changed to Cincinnati, after the Order of Cincinnati, by Governor Arthur St. Clair, upon his arrival at the settlement in 1789.

Filson died an unfortunate death. It seems that on an exploring expedition in the Miami Country he became separated

from the rest of the party and was never heard from again. Whether he was killed by Indians or died from exposure or drowning was never known. His body was not found. After the death of Filson, Israel Ludlow took his place as one of the original proprietors of Cincinnati.

Israel Ludlow had been appointed by the United States Geographer to survey the Miami purchase. Later he entered the employ of John Cleves Symmes. Ludlow is of particular interest to us because he was the only one of the original proprietors of Losantiville to remain within the vicinity, and because of his connection with the beginnings of other important settlements in the Miami Country. In 1790 he established Ludlow's Station at what is now the intersection of Knowlton Street and the Cincinnati, Hamilton & Dayton Railway in Cincinnati; in 1794 he laid out the city of Hamilton; in 1795 he marked out the streets of Dayton, Ohio. Ludlow died in January, 1804, and was buried in the graveyard of the First Presbyterian Church, on Fourth Street, near Main.

The Landing at Losantiville.—Tradition says that the party which left Limestone to found Losantiville spent the greater part of the day on which they left in completing preparations; so they did not start until late in the afternoon. They made only nine miles the first day, and then tied up for the night. On the third day they passed Columbia, but the floating ice prevented them from landing. On the evening of that same day they reached the mouth of the Licking River, and were compelled to remain on the Kentucky shore, as the packs of floating ice hindered them from crossing the river to the point they had already selected for the new settlement. The next morning, however, they succeeded in getting across. They entered a little inlet. This became known afterward as Yeatman's Cove. The curious can find its position on Front Street at the foot of Sycamore Street. It received its name from Griffin Yeatman, who for many a year resided there and kept a tavern at the point where Sycamore Street intersects the Public Landing.

The Survey of the Town.—Immediately after landing, Ludlow proceeded to make his survey for the town. The work was substantially completed on January 7, 1789, the date on which the drawing took place for the donation lots.

As originally laid out, the town was bounded on the north

by Northern Row, now Seventh Street; on the east by Eastern Row, now Broadway; on the west by Western Row, now Central Avenue. What is now the Public Landing, south of Front Street, between Main and Broadway, was declared a public common. This small tract which thus became Cincinnati's first public park was set aside for public use within one month of the landing of the first settlers.

YEATMAN'S COVE; FROM AN OLD DRAWING

The Apportionment of Lots.—By January 7 the apportionment of lots was over. Those accepting lots did so under the following agreement, promulgated by Ludlow January 7, 1789:

CONDITIONS

on which the donation lots in the town Losantiville are held and settled.

The first thirty town and out lots to so many of the most early adventurers shall be given by the proprietors Messrs. Denman, Patterson and Ludlow who for their part do agree to make a deed free and clear of all charges and incumbrances excepting that of surveying and deeding the same so soon as a deed is procured from Congress by Judge Symmes.

The holders for their part do agree to become actual settlers on the premises; plant and attend two crops successively and not less than one acre shall be cultivated for each crop and that within the terms of two years—each person receiving a donation lot or lots shall build a house equal to twenty feet square one

> story and a half high with a brick stone or clay chimney which shall stand in front of their respective lots and shall be put in tenantable repair within the term of two years from the date thereof.
>
> The above requisitions shall be minutely complyed with under penalty of forfeiture unless Indian depradations render it impracticable. Done this seventh day of January One Thousand seven hundred and Eighty-Nine.
>
> Israel Ludlow.

The price of the lots in the beginning was very low. For example, Israel Ludlow, in payment for a balance of less than one hundred dollars due to him from the proprietors, preferred to take 120 acres, seven miles from the town, rather than four outside lots and an entire square located on what is now Pearl Street. Lots not donated are said to have sold at from two dollars to four dollars each. After the Indian Wars, however, when population again moved toward Cincinnati, the price of real estate advanced.

The greater part of the first month was spent in making surveys and in marking out lots allotted to the purchasers. The street plan of the new settlement was modeled after Philadelphia. Between Broadway and Western Row (now Central Avenue) were marked out six streets, each 66 feet wide, running north 16 degrees west and lying 396 feet apart. These were intersected at right angles by others the same distance apart, except that Water and Front Streets are closer together, and Second and Third Streets are further apart on account of the topography. No alleys nor diagonal streets were included in the plan.

Primitive Cincinnati.—In "Cincinnati in 1859," page 139, Charles Cist has given us the following account of Losantiville in its original state:

> From the hill which skirts the present line of Third Street, to the river bluffs, lay a broad swamp, which occupied, principally, the space from Second to Lower Market Streets, although, from its irregular shape, parts of it extend even further south. This was originally a thicket of beech and sugar trees and grape vines, interspersed with a heavy undergrowth of spicewood and pawpaws. On the second table, now lying between Third Street and the hills in the rear of Cincinnati, the ground was more unbroken in its surface,

> and heavily timbered with beech, sugar tree, and poplar, some of them of immense size. The river bank was a high bluff, extending opposite the present Public Landing, about one hundred and fifty feet south of the upper line of Front Street, and falling off north to the swamp rather rapidly. At Sycamore Street a large cove put in, reaching within a foot of what is now the northeast corner of Sycamore and Front Streets. Here Griffin Yeatman kept one of our earliest public houses. . . . At the corner of Ludlow was another of these coves, and another higher up, just below the mouth of Deer Creek. The first of these was called Stone Landing and the second, Dorsey's Cove. The ground fell off all the way from the banks of the Ohio to Second, then called Columbia Street. The coves referred to in the early days were the usual landing places for emigrants, as they probably had been to the various expeditions which the settlers in Kentucky, from time to time sent over to retaliate on the Shawanese Indian settlements to our north, their incursions across the Ohio.

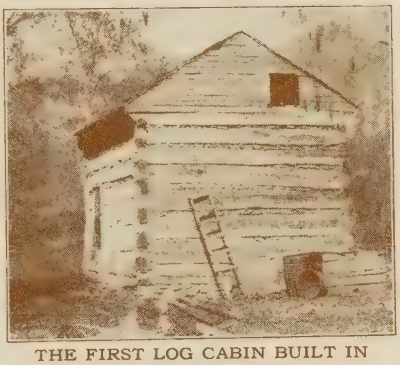
As soon as the lots were assigned, settlers began to put up cabins, clear the land, and get ready for the planting of crops. The larger part of the land between Walnut Street and Broadway was cleared; although in many cases trees were allowed to lie where they had fallen, and stumps to remain throughout the whole settlement for many years to come.

The First Settlers.—The arrival of families was not long delayed after the coming of the first boatload of adventurers. The date of the arrival of the first family is not definitely known. But Mrs. Rebecca Reeder tells of the arrival of the family to which she belonged on February 8, 1789. There were then three women in the settlement—Mrs. Dement, Mrs. Constant Zenes, who afterwards married William McMillan, and Mrs. Pestal, a German woman. The only small children in the settlement were those of Mrs. Pestal. Mrs. Reeder was the daughter of Francis Kennedy, who, with his wife and seven children, floated down the Ohio in a boat. On landing, the first people they met were William McMillan and Israel Ludlow.

The whole of Losantiville then consisted of three cabins, not floored, in which lived the surveyors and chain carriers. The men of the settlement assisted Kennedy in breaking up his boat and completing the temporary camp in which the family lived for six weeks. In the meantime he built a larger

cabin, which was the first one large enough to shelter an entire family. According to Mrs. Reeder, her father established the first ferry in Cincinnati. She is also authority for the statement that Smith and Findley were the first storekeepers, and that Colonel Gibson kept store at Main and Water Streets.

Food, Utensils, and Clothing.—During the early period of the settlement the difficulties of obtaining food were considerable, though fish and game were abundant. A large proportion of the flour and bacon and other produce was secured at considerable risk from the Kentucky settlements. Only about twenty acres of corn were planted the first season. The corn was generally ground in hand-mills. Tables were made of planks laid on trestles; trunks and blocks served for chairs, wooden bowls and trenches for dishes, and gourds for drinking vessels. Bedsteads were made of poles held up by two outer posts and the other ends sticking in the holes in the wall. Skins were laid across this to serve instead of a mattress, and skins were also used for the chief bed coverings. Children usually slept in the loft, to which they climbed by means of pegs driven into the walls. Hunting shirts were made of deer skins. The women wore linen and linsey woolsey. The dresses were colored with the bark of the butternut. Sunbonnets were almost the invariable feminine headgear.



THE FIRST LOG CABIN BUILT IN CINCINNATI

Primitive Exchange.—Very little money circulated in this early community, and instead the skins of wild animals to a great extent served as a medium of exchange. Rabbit skins were valued at six and a fourth cents, coon skins at twelve and a half cents, and fox skins at a half dollar each. What little money was in circulation consisted of silver Spanish dollars. These were frequently cut into quarters and even eighths to make small change. Hence the expression one bit (12½ cents), two bits (25 cents).

Early Schools.—The necessity of making a living and the hardships encountered did not long prevent the pioneers from

furnishing opportunities for education for their children. William D. Ludlow, who came to Cincinnati in 1789, at five years of age, tells us that his first schoolmaster was an Irishman named Lloyd. The schoolhouse stood on the river bank, now the Public Landing, near Main Street. It was located there because that was the safest place from a possible attack from the Indians. Another early school, erected in 1792, was located at Third and Lawrence Streets. A little later a better structure was completed on the upper side of Fourth Street opposite St. Paul's Church, where now stands the St. Paul Building. The Presbyterian Church itself was used for a time as a schoolhouse. William Lyon, who came to Cincinnati in 1791, tells of having attended school in the cabin near Riddle's blacksmith shop on the Public Landing near Sycamore Street. This was probably the school attended by Ludlow. Lyon's teacher was Kennedy Moreton, a great believer in the rod. He frequently whipped young men with a long gad (pole) until they fairly jumped from the floor.

The First Newspaper.—Another educational influence that early came to Cincinnati was the printing press. On November 9, 1793, while the Miami Country was still subject to Indian raids, William Maxwell issued the first number of the "Sentinel of the Northwest Territory," at the corner of Front and Sycamore Streets. The Sentinel was a four-page sheet, 8½ by 10½ inches. The subscription price was $2.50 per year. A copy of this edition is in the possession of the Ohio Historical and Philosophical Society, and is preserved in their museum in the Van Wormer Library Building at the University of Cincinnati. This first Ohio newspaper, "The Sentinel," had an existence of something more than two and a half years. Its advertisements in a considerable degree reflect the life of the settlement. From Greve's History of Cincinnati we take the following:

> Levi Woodward advertised that on November 11th between Seth Cutler's tavern and Samuel Thompson's house he had "found a pair of Deer Skin Sattle Bags, one Shirt, and one pair of Trousers of Homespun linen, which the owner can have by proving Property and Paying Charges." Darius C. Orcutt had a tract of land for sale on the Licking River, for which he would take corn, whiskey, flour, neet cattle, horses, pork, beef or cash in payment. John Ludlow on December 18th advertises "Good encouragement will be given

to a Number of Settlers at Mount Pleasant two miles from Ludlow's Station, on the Main Road to Fort Hamilton." C. Avery (December 21) calls on those who are indebted to him to pay their accounts, otherwise he will be under the necessity of taking measures which will be disagreeable to him and more so to those who do not comply with this friendly notice. William Tait offers a neat and general assortment of Dry Goods and Groceries far superior in quality to any yet opened in this place, in a small frame house on the southeast corner of Sycamore and Second Streets. Mr. Findley, merchant, just arrived from Pittsburg, February 22, 1794, tells of being attacked by the Indians above the mouth of the Scioto. In this number also is the news of an attack by Indians about nine miles on this side of Fort Hamilton "upon two wagons owned by Mr. Scott Traverse, the one loaded with merchandise belonging to Messrs. Smith and Findley, of this place, the other with Quarter-Master's stores. . . . The waggoners were both killed, the teams captured, the wagons set on fire and together with their cargoes entirely consumed. Mr. Traverse appears to have been most unhumanly butchered." The opening of the General Court before Hon. George Turner is reported; The procession from the Judge's Chambers to the public ground, was in the following order,

Constables with Battoons,
Shiriff and Coroner with white wands,
Gaoler,
The Honorable Judge,
Clerk with a green bag,
Judge of the Common Pleas,
Justices of the Peace,
Attornies, Messengers, Etc.

The anniversary of Independence Day was celebrated with becoming glee, by a joyous band of free hearts and willing spirits, from the Army and the City. At noon a federal salute, from Fort Washington now commanded by Captain John Pierce of the artillery. At 4 o'clock the company sat down if not to Eastern Luxuries, to a handsome and plentiful dinner, well served by Mr. Gordon. The juicy high flavored venison of the forest, and the delicious turtle of the Ohio are not absent on this occasion. Well seasoned mirth, and paternal harmony beguiled the passing day and the company retired at 8 o'clock. The same number announces the post office was kept at the dwelling of Abner M. Dunn, Esq.

The First Church and the First Pastor.—The pioneers did not long delay in establishing opportunities for religious worship. The proprietors, in laying out the town, dedicated the southern half of the block bounded by Fourth, Walnut, Fifth, and Main Streets for school and church purposes. The next year, 1790, Rev. David Rice, of Kentucky, organized a Presbyterian church, and proceeded to occupy the premises. Not being able to erect a building at once, the congregation used the lot as a cemetery; but when the weather was good, religious services were held on the church lot in the open air.

In 1791 the Rev. James Kemper arrived. A subscription was at once started with which to erect a church meeting house. The trees had already been cleared from a portion of the lot at Fourth and Main Streets. There the pioneers met in the open air with logs for seats, and rifles in hand for protection from Indians.

The first meeting house was finally erected in 1792, the land around being enclosed with a post-and-rail fence. Timber for the building was taken from the very spot on which it was erected. The first Cincinnati church was a plain frame building 30 by 40 feet, the roof weather-boarded with clapboards, and neither lathed, plastered, nor ceiled. The floor was made of boat planks, loosely laid on sleepers, while seats were formed by bringing in the necessary number of logs and placing them a suitable distance apart and then covering them with boards whipsawed. On one side of the room was a breastwork of unplaned cherry. This constituted the pulpit. Behind it the preacher stood on a stout plank supported by two blocks of wood. This original church was removed in 1804 to Vine Street, below Fifth, about where the Emery Hotel now stands, and the lot occupied by a brick building for business purposes.

The first pastor of this backwoods congregation, the Rev. James Kemper, is deserving of considerable notice because of the place which he and his family occupied in the community. Born in 1753, in Fauquier County, Va., he was, in succession, farm boy, teacher, civil engineer, and preacher. In 1783 he went to Tennessee as government surveyor. There he met the Rev. David Rice, of Kentucky, who induced him to abandon his work and become a minister of the gospel. Two years later, convoyed by an escort of forty men, he brought his family, consisting of wife and six children, into Kentucky, and took up his pastoral work at Dyckes River, near Danville. He was in

great financial straits, and accepted the use of a 20-acre farm as salary. Here he began reading divinity, teaching school, and catechising the churches. In 1791 he was fully licensed to preach, and shortly afterward came to Cincinnati and began preaching at North Bend, Columbia, Cincinnati, and Round Bottom. He arrived in Cincinnati with his family on October 25 or 26, 1791, about nine days after St. Clair's defeat. The Indians at this time were so troublesome that it was necessary for the guard to convoy him from one church to another.

HOME OF REV. JAMES KEMPER

Kemper was a fine upright man, about five feet nine inches tall, weighing 160 lbs. He wore knee breeches with silver knee-buckles, silver shoe-buckles, three high collars to his coat, a cue, and a voluminous neck-cloth. He was, in fact, what one would call "a careful dresser." Winning in manners and slow to speak, he had a commanding and attractive countenance. He was open, serious, preoccupied and expectant, quiet, gentle, and reserved. His home was on Kemper Lane, Walnut Hills. This original residence has been removed to the Zoological Garden, where it is still preserved.

The First Government. For the first two years of the life of the settlement there was no regularly organized government. Settlers in the community adjusted their own differences. But, like all frontier settlements, Losantiville had its share of individuals who had no just and proper regard for the rights of their neighbors. As in all Anglo-Saxon communities, the germ of self-government was present among the leaders in Losantiville. They in due time proceeded to organize a government to provide for the exigencies of the situation. A public meeting was called under a large spreading tree. William McMillan was elected chairman and secretary. A code of laws was drawn up providing for punishment for certain offenses. All promised to aid in enforcing them as the laws of the community. William McMillan was elected Judge, with John Ludlow as Sheriff of the newly provided government.

Fort Washington.—These beginnings of community life were made under adverse conditions. Although the settlement of Losantiville grew rapidly during the first few months of its existence, its development was suddenly checked by renewed hostility of the Indians. A temporary lull in the fighting had come at the time of the beginning of the settlement. Now the fighting broke out again with greater violence. The Indians, urged on by the British in the neighborhood of Detroit, determined that the Miami settlement should be entirely destroyed. What the pioneers needed most at this time was protection. In supplying it the national government was tardy.

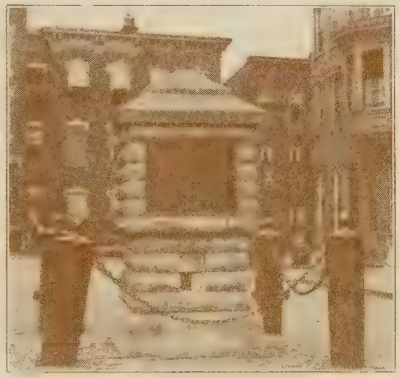
(Courtesy of Rombach & Groene)

FORT WASHINGTON

Small garrisons were finally established at Columbia and North Bend. Later, Cincinnati was given the greatest measure of protection, when Major Daughty, with 140 men, dropped down the river and began the construction of Fort Washington. This was in August, 1789. From this time forward Cincinnati had a distinct advantage over all other settlements in the Miami Country. The government first built four block houses near the present Public Landing. Later, Fort Washington was constructed on a plot of 15 acres east of Broadway and south of Front Street. The following December Lieutenant William Henry Harrison arrived with 300 soldiers and assumed command. In February, 1790, General St. Clair and the judges of

the Superior Court arrived and set up court. It was then that the name was changed from Losantiville to Cincinnati.

Even with the protection afforded by Fort Washington, the people of the settlement were frequently harassed by the Indians, and emigrants entirely ceased to come to the Miami Country until after Wayne's victory, in August, 1794.



SITE OF FORT WASHINGTON: THIRD AND LUDLOW STREETS

It was during this pioneer time, say from 1789 to 1795, that the community life of Cincinnati began. For streets were marked off, lots were apportioned among the settlers, cabins were built, clearings were made, crops were raised, and stores were established. When hostilities at last ceased, emigrants again began to come to the Middle West. Cincinnati, although still only a settlement of log cabins, had established the beginnings of most of those institutions that characterize permanent and civilized communities. With the exception of Lexington, Cincinnati already was the most important community west of Pittsburgh.

Before dealing with the details of community organization in Cincinnati, it will be well to give some further particulars of the pioneer life, and this will be found in the following chapter.

CHAPTER IV

Pioneer Life

NOTE.—This chapter on "Pioneer Life" was written by Florence Wilson in 1909. Miss Wilson was at that time a teacher in the Linwood School. She was later transferred to Woodward High School, where she remained until the time of her death, April, 1914. She was one of the pioneers in the introduction of civics into the Public Schools of Cincinnati, being a member of the first class of teachers which met at the Public Library during the school year 1909-10 to consider ways and means of promoting good citizenship. It was for the purpose of furnishing a study in the elements of community life that Miss Wilson prepared this article. It is presented not only as a valuable civic study, but as a testimonial of a teacher of superior ability and fine character, who was taken from us before her work was completed.

Because life in our community runs on so smoothly from day to day, it is hard for us to realize that it has not always done so. It seems only natural that each citizen should have but one kind of work to do, and should bend all his energies toward doing that work well. By being paid in money for his services, he can in turn use this money to pay his fellow citizens for the results of their labor, and thus at the same time satisfy his own demands.

SOUVENIRS OF PIONEER TIMES

Little more than a hundred years ago the conditions of life in Cincinnati were far different. It rested with each family to satisfy its own demands. There were no large and well equipped factories for supplying soap, cloth, brooms, dishes, etc. Every household must need produce these things itself, and the work must be so planned that everything would be ready when it was needed.

Dr. Daniel Drake.—In order to form some idea of the responsibility which rested with the early pioneer, it might be well for us to follow the history of some one family. Dr. Daniel

Drake, a prominent citizen of Cincinnati during the greater part of the first half century of the city's existence, has left us such a history in the form of a series of letters written to his children and grandchildren, and describing his early life in the wilderness near Maysville, Kentucky. Within recent years these letters have been collected and edited under the title "Pioneer Life in Kentucky," and now form a valuable source in the early historical collection of early Cincinnati. The fact that the events occurred in Kentucky does not seriously impair their historical value to us, as the two localities are so near to each other that the same conditions are to be found in both.

Dr. Drake came to Cincinnati when he was fifteen, and learned to love our city very dearly. No one citizen has ever done more for her welfare than he. Besides helping to found our first medical college, and forming a literary club which greatly advanced our intellectual culture, he was influential in planting the row of elm trees which stands on the western side of Washington Park. He led the movement which many years later resulted in the construction of the Cincinnati Southern Railway.

Removal of the Drake Family to Kentucky. -He tells us that his father, Isaac Drake, was a poor miller hired to run a mill. When his son Daniel was two years of age Isaac Drake became dissatisfied with his lot in New Jersey, and wished to take his wife and son and his baby daughter to some new region of this undeveloped country. His two elder brothers, Abraham and Cornelius, decided to take their families and accompany him. In addition, two other families distantly connected with the Drakes joined them; and, after making the necessary preparations, they set out in their schooner wagons for their rough journey over the Alleghenies. When they arrived at Fort Pitt, now Pittsburgh, they found other families preparing to take the perilous journey down the Ohio. A little fleet of five flatboats was accordingly gotten together and the whole party set out. About four days later they arrived at the settlement, consisting of four or five log cabins, then known as Limestone, but since changed to Maysville. While preparing to land, Isaac Drake had the misfortune to sprain his ankle and had to be carried on shore. The whole party proceeded about four miles inland to a village called Washington. Here Drake found shelter for his family in an abandoned sheep cote. By spending

his last dollar for a bushel of corn he managed to keep them from starving until his ankle would permit him to work. The other men of his party began to look about for a suitable place to locate. After a few months they purchased a tract of fourteen hundred acres about eight miles beyond Washington, and situated on the Lexington Road. By reason of the fact that the land contained an abandoned buffalo lick and was owned by a man named May, they called the site Mayslick. By selling the only capital he possessed, his wagon and one of his horses, Isaac Drake was able to purchase thirty-eight acres, and in a short time was able to increase the number to fifty.

Building the Cabin.—Each of the five men now set out from Washington, shouldering his faithful axe, and by its aid alone hoped to erect his new home in the wilderness. The ground was first cleared by cutting down the saplings and girdling those trees which were more than a foot in diameter. Logs of suitable size for the cabin were selected and rolled to a convenient spot, when the work of "raising" the cabin began. As soon as the four walls were erected and half of the roof and half of the log chimney constructed, the families moved into their new quarters. It mattered little to them that there were no "puncheons" placed upon the broad "sleepers" which had been erected to sustain the floor; nor did they mind the broad crevices in the roof so long as the "puncheon" door could be heavily barred, and thus render them secure against the Indians.

Clearing and Planting.—Just as soon as the cabin offered sufficient protection to the family, the work of clearing the field for the planting began. Isaac Drake was not in robust health, so he had to content himself with a small clearing. In due time, however, the planting was finished, and the whole family were looking forward to a feast of "roasting ears." A heavy frost on the last night of August dashed to pieces these hopes, and the pioneers, whose appetites had been cloyed with animal food, felt that they could scarcely endure another winter with their longing for corn unsatisfied. No fault was to be found with the game of this region, for the venison was as fine as could be found anywhere, and the turkeys were so plump that the fall from their roost in the trees was sufficient to burst their skins.

Within a very few years several other families located at Mayslick, and it soon grew into quite a promising village. When Daniel was nine years old his father traded their little

tract of fifty acres for a larger one of two hundred acres, situated farther back in the woods, about a mile west of Mayslick.

Boys' Work.—A new cabin, differing very little from the old one, was now erected, and Daniel was called upon to lend a hand. His father also found him of use in the field. Although he was still too small to guide a plow, he could sit astride the "old gray," and with the cockles and thistles tearing his bare legs and feet, he could urge the horse up and down the long furrows, and thus leave his father free to manage the plow, a task not by any means easy in such a rooty soil. After the plowing came the planting. Here Daniel was useful in dropping the seed while his father attended to covering them with the hoe. As soon as the corn began to come up, Daniel and his faithful dog "Old Lion" were kept busy chasing the crows and squirrels from the fields.

Corn and Its Uses.—Daniel felt amply repaid for all his labor, however, when the era of the "roasting ears" arrived. No other dish on the pioneer's table quite came up to this; and the whole family enjoyed the feast while it lasted. When the corn grew too old to be roasted, it was grated on a tin grater; and the pulp thus obtained was baked before the fire. Daniel did not look forward to this period with any marked pleasure, as the task of grating fell to his lot, and he not infrequently grated his thumb as well as the corn. When the corn grew too hard even for this use, it was ready to be gathered and ground into meal. Every part of the corn stalk could be utilized by the pioneer. The blades below the ears were gathered into bundles and stored as fodder for winter use. The stalks above the ears were cut and shocked, and the stalks themselves were cut, stripped of their ears, and likewise stored for fodder. When the ears were pulled they were thrown into a rick to await husking. After the husking came the shelling, an occupation which was reserved for a rainy day. A large sheet would be spread on the floor, and every child large enough to hold an ear in his hand would be set to work. Not even the cobs of this useful plant were wasted, for they were either tossed into the fire to serve as fuel, or the baby used them as blocks with which to build toy houses. After the shelling, the corn was ready to be ground into meal. Their method of grinding was very crude. Daniel mentions using a burnt out tree stump as a mortar for pounding corn. He also describes the hand mills

which they sometimes used, an excellent illustration of which is to be found in McMaster's "School History." Besides these, there were two other kinds of mills in the neighborhood, those turned by horses, and those run by water power. These were not very common, and the Drakes made but little use of them. In their family, as in the whole of Kentucky, corn meal was largely used as a substitute for wheat flour.

Harvest Time.—The soil of this part of Kentucky is not adapted to the cultivation of wheat. Besides, the weavil abounds in this vicinity. Isaac Drake and his wife had such a craving for wheat bread, like that they had been accustomed to back in their New Jersey home, that Mr. Drake finally decided to try his luck at raising wheat. Accordingly the cornfield was re-plowed with the shovel-plow, and the bushy limb of a tree was used in place of a hoe. When the wheat had ripened, the social labor of harvesting was indulged in, much to Daniel's delight. In early years he was too young to do little else than to carry the sheaves to be shocked. As he grew older he learned to bind and cut the wheat; but his great ambition was to wield the sickle so vigorously that, to use a homely phrase, he would "sweat enough to wet his shirt." When, however, he noticed that those men sweat most who drank the most whiskey, this desire was given up. His busy mother found no holiday in the harvest time. On such occasions there were so many "extras" at the table that Daniel was oftentimes called from the field to give his mother assistance in the kitchen.

Pumpkin and the Truck Patch. -Planted in and out among the corn stalks was found another product very popular with the pioneer, the pumpkin vine. In the early fall the ground would be covered with this rich golden fruit, and then "old Brindle" enjoyed her share of the feast as much as the family enjoyed their spicy pumpkin pies. To keep pumpkin during the winter it was cut into strips and hung up on the rafters to dry.

Somewhere in the midst of the cornfield, but well hidden from the road, every farmer had his truck patch, in which he raised his vegetables. Apples were not very plentiful in this region of Kentucky, but the rich, creamy turnip, such as could be raised in the dark, rich soil, was an excellent substitute.

Caring for the Stock.—Along with his other duties, it was Daniel's work to look after the stock. If the fodder ran out before the winter was over, the woods must be resorted to for

"browse" for the cattle and horses. With axes on their shoulders, Daniel and his father would be seen driving these animals to the nearest forests. They would select a slippery elm, because of its soft and mucilaginous twigs, and just as soon as it fell to earth the "browsing" commenced. After cutting down several trees, they would leave the animals to their feast and devote their time to other work.

Building Fences.—Winter was usually considered a good time to lay in a supply of fence rails, and they hunted up the blue ash and honey locust for this purpose. When fourteen years of age, Daniel could split seventy rails of blue ash, or forty rails of honey locust in a day, a record of which any boy might well be proud. By means of the log-chain these rails were hauled to the place where the fence was to be put up.

In making fences, it fell to Daniel's lot to lay the "worm" or ground rail. This was done by setting up two rows of stakes parallel to each other and five feet apart. A grubbing hoe was used to mark the ground within the range of two stakes. As he grew older and more experienced he dispensed with the hoe and "sighted" by the stakes. His father and the hired man would follow after him and lay up the rails on the ground rail which he had formed.

Sugar Making.—They did not always go for "browsing" when they went to the woods in February. In clearing the land they were always careful to save all the sugar maples. But there were not many of these trees on their land. So every year they rented a neighboring grove and set out to tap them. They would take with them their axes for tapping, several iron vats or pots, and a barrel placed on an old sled, to which the horse was hitched. When the troughs of buckeye wood had been placed to catch the sap, they would erect a sort of half-camp with clapboards; and while the father would attend to hanging the vats and gathering the fuel to be placed underneath them, Daniel would drive in and out among the trees, emptying the sugar-water from the troughs into the barrel. If the quantity of sap was not great, they would wait to boil it down, often going home in the early dawn. But if there was too much to handle in so short a time, they left the process of evaporating until the next day. In this manner the family were supplied with sugar and syrup for the coming winter. Daniel always took great delight in gathering berries for preserves in the sum-

mer time. In the fall he was careful to gather their winter supply of nuts; and, like Chateaubriand's bear, he always knew where the wild grapes were to be found.

Household Duties.—Besides all this work out in the open, there were many ways in which Daniel helped his mother in her household duties. Besides splitting and bringing in the wood, he would carry water from the neighboring spring, "slop" the cows, and stand over them with a stick while his mother milked them. He even assisted in the milking, but as the whole neighborhood considered such work "goalish" (girlish), both he and his mother were careful that no neighboring men or boys caught him at it. By strange inconsistency, churning was not proscribed, so that Daniel often moved the "dasher" up and down, waiting for butter to "come." He also knew the art of cheese making, and could prepare the rennet, assist in squeezing out the whey from the curds, and manage the long lever of the cheese press.

Wash Day.—Friday was the Drakes' wash-day. A long trough, dug out of the trunk of a tree, stood under the back eaves to catch rain water for washing. During time of droughts when a shower came up, all the washtubs and buckets of the house were set out to catch as great a supply as possible. It often happened that water had to be brought from the spring, and this hard water must be "broke" with ashes. Besides carrying water, Daniel also had to keep up the fire, take care of the children, and assist in hanging out the clothes, which, for want of line, were hung on a fence. Sometimes it was decided to take the clothes to a small pond and wash them near its edge. Other families did the same, and much hilarity and social chit-chat were indulged in. The soap for washing these clothes was of their own manufacture. Mr. Drake supplied the "ash hopper," which consisted of clapboards arranged in an inverted pyramid. In the bottom were thrown some husks, straw, or dried buffalo grass to act as a strainer. This hopper was filled with ashes, on the broad surface of which water from time to time was poured by the bucketful. A trough beneath received the lye, which, over a fire in the yard, was boiled down until it was strong enough to float an egg. The fat was then added, and the boiling continued till the soap came.

Scrubbing and scouring were done on Saturday, but the scrubbing-brush was unknown in that region. In its stead a

split broom was used. This was made from a small hickory sapling, stripped into "splits" for about eight or ten inches with a jackknife pressed by the right thumb. The "splits" were bent back and held down with the left hand. When the heart of the wood was reached it was too brittle to strip, so it was sawed off and the "splits" were turned forward and tied with a tow string. The pole itself was then reduced to a convenient size for a handle. A shorter hand-broom called a "scrub" was made precisely like the scrubbing broom, only a smaller sapling was used. All the buckeye bowls and the good old black walnut tables were scoured with these scrubs.

Home-made Clothing.—Not only must the mother attend to preparing food for her family, and see that her house was kept neat and clean, but she must also provide clothing for them all. Cotton goods were seldom seen in this region, and a calico dress was most highly prized. Sheep raising was profitable, so a great deal of woolen material was used. Before shearing, the sheep would be driven to a shallow running stream, and the wool washed while on their backs. It was then dried, and the sheep were ready for shearing. The wool was filled with cockles and burrs, which had to be picked out with the fingers. Daniel helped with this, as well as with the carding of it, and then turned it over to his mother for the spinning. After spinning, it would be prepared for weaving either into a pure woolen cloth or into a mixed cloth made of both linen and wool, and known as "linsey woolsey." Every member of the family was clothed in this material, and the busy mother's fingers spun and wove it all.

The "linsey woolsey" mentioned above was dingy and unattractive in color. Hence, to improve it and render it more pleasing to the eye, Mrs. Drake subjected it to various dyestuffs. The most frequently used coloring was that obtained from the inner bark of the white walnut. It was a peculiar, though permanent, shade of dull yellow, known as the "butternut shade." The hulls of the black walnut were used to furnish rusty black. Indigo, which cost eighteen pence an ounce, was used as a blue dye; and from madder, which cost three shillings a pound, they obtained a sort of dirty red. Any bit of color delighted the pioneer child's eye. Even the slightest band of red trimming on the butternut "linsey woolsey" fed the youthful vanity almost to the extent as did a "boughten suit."

Barter, Salt and Whiskey. — Daniel received his first "boughten suit" when he was twelve years old. It was paid for by a load of timothy seed, which Daniel and his father brought to "the Lick," and there exchanged for some "fustian," with which to make Daniel a "round-about" and a pair of pantaloons. Money was not plentiful in this region, and bartering was the common practice. Most of the wants of the pioneer could be satisfied from his own lands; but there were some few which could not. Among these latter the most important was salt. It could only be obtained by shipping it from the coast or by evaporating the water of an unusually abundant salt spring. Blue Licks was such a spring, and it had a number of evaporating furnaces near it. Eight hundred gallons of water had to be boiled down to obtain one bushel of salt. Mr. Drake would sometimes come here to buy his salt, and would bring with him for payment as much hay as two horses could draw. As another instance of barter, we might mention the sale of a very fine horse. Even in those days Kentuckians took great pride in their horses, and after laboring so hard to raise them tried to get the highest price possible for them. Daniel's father was not unlike his neighbors in this respect, so took one of his animals, which proved to be especially fine, to a market in an adjoining county. A Kentucky colonel bought it and offered as part pay one hundred gallons of whiskey. This was more "fire-water" than the Drake family could find use for, so they set to work retailing it to their neighbors. Daniel was put in charge, and had his first experience as a bartender when he was eleven years of age. In after years Daniel became a very zealous temperance advocate. And we look upon it as only one of the many instances which show his strong character, that even though he was brought up in a neighborhood where whiskey was freely indulged in, he detected the abhorrent side of this indulgence, and was able to hold himself aloof from such degradation. In every pioneer family, save perhaps those of the Methodist profession, the whiskey bottle was a common article. The Drakes followed the customs of their neighbors, yet neither Daniel nor his father drank to excess, or ever enjoyed the antics of those who became "fuddled."

Health.—Dr. Drake's boyhood was remarkably free from sickness. He attributed his good health to his surroundings and manner of living. Beyond a doubt, he had ample oppor-

tunity for good, healthy exercise, but very little attention was paid to the sanitary conditions of his environment. The region abounded in malaria and typhoid. And it is a fact to be wondered at that a child of his delicate build escaped these malignant germs. Then, too, many of their foods were fried, so that being soggy and soaked with grease they would tax even the strongest digestion. Every household contained one remedy for all ailments, a bottle of tansy "bitters."

Danger from the Indians.—From the pioneer's standpoint, destruction from another source was more to be feared than the ravages of disease. Up until the time of Wayne's victory, the settlers were never free from the fear of attack by the Indians. During the first year of their stay at Mayslick a party of travelers had stopped for the night on the Lexington Road about a mile away from the settlement. While they were seated around their fire, some Indians shot into their midst and killed one of the men. At this, the rest of the men all lost their heads, and the whole party might have been slaughtered had it not been for the presence of mind of one of the women, who ran to a chest, broke it open, and, taking out firearms and ammunition, called upon the men to fire. They did so, and this, together with the extinguishing of their camp-fire, completely routed the red men. When word was brought to the settlement, the men organized themselves into a searching party, and while they were gone all the women and children congregated in one house for greater safety. The Indians never made any direct attack upon the village. Only occasionally did rumors reach them of fighting which really amounted to anything.

Education.—In these early days education was not neglected, although it was of a very crude kind. Such revered teachers as Filson, Sharp, Clark, and Stubbs were unknown in this section, and only men of mediocre ability wielded the birch. Before moving into the woods back of "The Lick," Daniel had attended school for three years, and in that time had learned to read, to write a large "joining hand," and to make capitals. This knowledge allowed him to make some progress at home. After they moved away from the village, and for the next two years, he had to study for himself. After this Daniel's father and his neighbors did manage to erect a schoolhouse; but they were too illiterate to manage it, and were unfortunate in not being able to secure teachers with any degree of competence. The whole

school studied their lessons aloud, and progress was noted by the increase of the noise.

Going to Church.—Religion was always given due consideration in settling Mayslick. As soon as their own homes were comfortable, they banded themselves together to build a church. Not all of the settlers were of the same denomination, but as they did not have sufficient funds with which to hire a regular preacher, they contented themselves with itinerant preachers of any denomination whatever, whenever, and however they could be obtained. The whole Drake family were nothing loath to walk a distance of two miles to church. The necessary chores were done at an early hour. Then if boots were to be worn, these were treated with a copious supply of grease and soot. Many times in hot weather the children were allowed to go barefoot to church. The legs had to be scrubbed extra hard and a clean rag applied to any injured toe. The father in his rusty black suit, his "biled" shirt, and creaking boots led the way. After service there were many greetings to be exchanged. But there was no hilarity. All actions were solemn and subdued as befitted the Sabbath.

Social Meetings.—The Sunday gatherings were not their only social meetings. The pioneers learned to turn some of their work into play; and many a happy evening was spent either husking corn or paring apples. An evening would be decided upon after the corn had been gathered; the neighbors would be notified, and both young and old would assemble at an early hour. The whiskey bottle circulated freely among the men; and it sometimes happened that those who had participated too freely had to be taken home. While the husking was going on, competition became lively, and as a result of some petty grievance, the evening occasionally ended in a quarrel. Quilting bees were popular among the women. They would meet early in the afternoon and spend several hours at the task of quilting. Then they would all sit down to a groaning table. In the evening their husbands and sweethearts would call for them, and would be invited to sit down to the "leavings" of the feast. After this the chairs and table would be pushed out of the way, and good old-fashioned dances would be indulged in to the merry scraping of the fiddle. Saturday was the time for general hilarity in the village. On that day court held its session; all errands were usually put off until the end of the week.

Any kind of excitement was in order. Game fighting, wrestling, and all kinds of street faking were permitted. The revelry lasted until far into the night; but by the church time on the Sabbath all traces of it had disappeared.

Government.—There was no police force in the village. In fact, no village government of any kind had been worked out. The United States courts, of course, had jurisdiction over this district, but this seemed to be the only organized power of government that existed here during the early years. The community was composed for the most part of God-fearing people. This fact in itself is sufficient to explain the absence of all excessive lawlessness which might otherwise have marked the new settlement.

"The Good Old Times."—In the present day when people become discontented with their surroundings, they not infrequently express a wish for the good old times, for the days of the pioneer. After reading the letters of Daniel Drake, we feel that we cannot altogether sympathize with them in this wish. Although our present method of living is yet far from perfect, we cannot fail to see that it has many advantages over pioneer civilization. It is true that during the last quarter of our previous century stress was laid on intellectual development, oftentimes at the expense of our physical welfare. We realize now that this was a mistake, and we are trying to rectify it as speedily as possible. It seems well-nigh impossible to cultivate the intellect without some sacrifice of physical well-being. A brief comparison need only be made between the pioneers and our own fellow citizens in order to appreciate the words of a modern educator when he said, "Better Socrates with a headache than a perfectly healthy pig."

CHAPTER V

The People of the City

The Early Residents.- As the ideas and characteristics of the members of the family determine the character of the family life, so the origin, ideals, and character of the people of the community determine the character of the institutions of the community.

PERCENTAGE NATIVE BORN WHITE POPULATION TO TOTAL POPULATION. FROM U. S. CENSUS: 1910

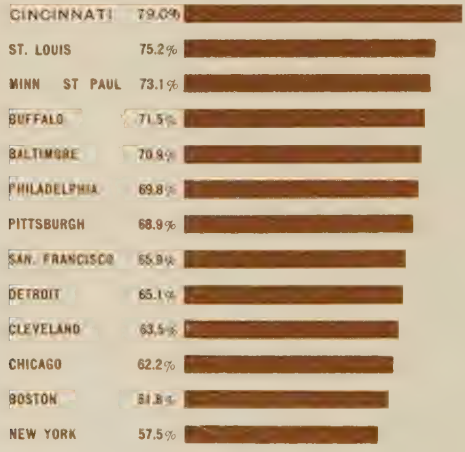


CHART 1.

Cincinnati was founded and developed by Americans of English descent. During the early period of the city's existence people from New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Maryland predominated, with a goodly number from Virginia and farther south, together with a sprinkling of New Englanders.

These were the people who laid out the town, established the first schools and the first churches, organized the local government, and inaugurated the city's commercial and industrial life. Practically no other influence affected the life of this community during the first half century of its existence.

Cincinnati still remains distinctly American. In the year 1910, 42.6 per cent of the population of Cincinnati were of native-born parents, the total white native born being 79 per cent of all the inhabitants. This is a larger proportion of native population than for any of the other metropolitan cities of the United States.

The Coming of the Germans.—The population of Cincinnati was 2,340 in 1810. This grew to 24,831 in 1830, and to 46,338 in 1840. Then came the Germans, helping its growth to 115,435 in 1850, to 161,044 in 1860, and to 216,239 in 1870, and adding

INCREASE OF POPULATION AND AREA OF CINCINNATI, 1800-1914

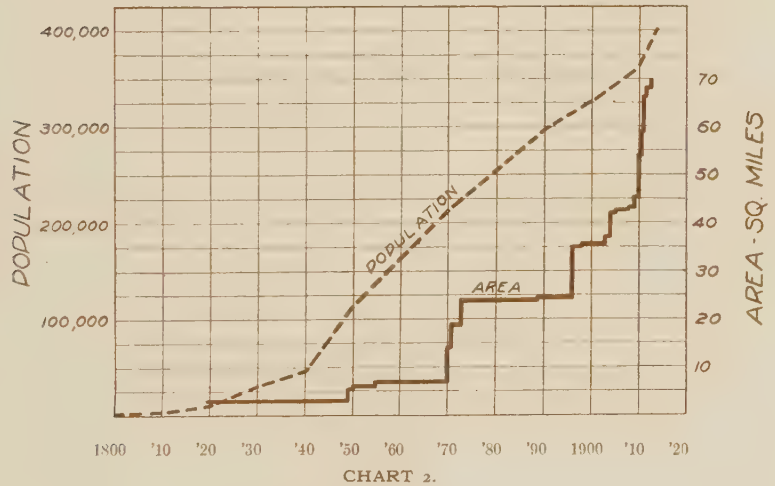


CHART 2.

a new element to the community life. The unification of the German Empire stopped this German immigration. The consequence was that the population of Cincinnati for a whole decade grew less than 900 a year, and it amounted to 225,139 in 1880. After this it rose more rapidly to 296,908 in 1890, to be retarded again until the end of the century. In 1900 there were living 325,902 residents within the actual city limits, and 480,000 persons were within ten miles of Fountain Square. More than half of these, over 198,000 in all, were of foreign parents paternally, maternally, or both, and of those 198,000 the Germans numbered 107,000. Of the 58,000 foreign-born, 38,000 came from Germany. The Germans are now by far our most important foreign element, making the city noteworthy

for its music, and adding elements of strength and culture and efficiency, for which the Germans are noted.

The Percentage of Foreign-born. The United States census of 1910 gave Cincinnati a population of 364,463, and this, proportionately, is estimated to give a population exceeding 400,000 in 1915. The percentage of foreign-born has long tended to decrease, as, for instance, from 17.8 per cent in 1900 to 15.6 per cent in 1910, at which date the proportion of foreign-born to native was smaller than for any other large American city. The actual number also was less in 1910 than in 1900. In no other large city did the number of foreigners decrease during this decade. In 1915 it was estimated to be 14 per cent, or 56,000.

It can be seen, therefore, that Cincinnati is in reality an English-American community, with a strong infusion of German blood, and a much smaller proportion of Italian, Greek, Balkan, and Hungarian population than many other American cities. The Jews are present in large numbers. The Irish are strong; Spanish, Mexicans, and a few Chinese work in restaurants and laundries. A large number of negroes inhabit the lower parts of the city, with a considerable negro population on Walnut Hills.

Somewhat more than one-seventh of the whites in Cincinnati are foreign-born. This is fewer than in other large American cities, but more than in the country as a whole. The absence of a large foreign population is a distinctive characteristic of Cincinnati, and has contributed materially to its slow growth in population. As stated above, 79 per cent of the population in 1910 were native born.

The Newer Immigration.—The newer immigration of Russians, Italians, Hungarians, Servians, Greeks, Rumanians, which especially needs Americanization, numbers less than a third of the total foreign-born, or about 17,000 of the new immigration to 39,000 of the old. This number of new immigrants takes no account of the numerous transients or of the many aliens living just outside of the city limits, and it is to be compared with certain estimates, varying from 25,000 to 30,000, made by men engaged in religious and social service for immigrants of Cincinnati and district.

The 1910 census lists the newer immigration to Cincinnati from the countries whence it came as follows: Hungary, 6,344;

Russia, 4,999; Italy, 2,245; Austria, 1,638; Turkey, 525; Rumania, 454; Greece, 180; and other countries, 398; making a total of 16,783.

It is better to classify them by race than by countries; for national boundaries do not follow racial divisions. Out of Hungary have come to Cincinnati more Rumanians than Hungarians, and also most of our Serbians, while nearly all of our Russians are Jews.

Some Germans still need Americanization, which the large American population of German descent may be trusted to give them. The American Jews care generously and wisely for their own immigrants, who come largely from Russia, Poland, Hungary, and Rumania, with some Spanols from Turkey.

The non-naturalized Jews, Rumanians, Hungarians, and Italians number several thousand each in the order named; the Syrians, Greeks, and Serbians each several hundreds; and there are smaller numbers of other sorts. Fifteen nations presented candidates for naturalization in June, 1915; but the transient Macedonians, Bulgarians, Albanians, and many others have little opportunity for education or naturalization, and simply work on railroads or factories in droves, save money, and return nearly as ignorant as they came.

The men of the newer immigration outnumber the women. The city has more than 8,000 non-naturalized men of voting age, not counting transients, and many of the boys are approaching their majority. They are good material for American citizenship. The proportion of population of adult male aliens (non-naturalized foreigners) is less in Cincinnati than in other cities.

Needs of Immigrants.—Immigrants need (1) transportation and distribution; (2) employment; (3) standardization of living; (4) savings, investment, and credit facilities; (5) education; (6) naturalization; and (7) care of their dependent persons.

Transportation and Distribution.—Only at New York does the United States Government so much as see the immigrant aboard his train. Cleveland is the only city government that meets him upon arrival to guide him to his destination or help him on his way. Usually he is left to extortionate porters, expressmen, cabmen, hotel runners, and exploiters of every sort. Cincinnati depends upon volunteer social service for his interpreters and guides. The need of the immigrant is partially met

by welfare organizations, such as the Immigrant Welfare Committee. Inadequate supervision of transportation and distribution of the foreign passengers leaves women a prey to procurers, congests immigrants in certain quarters of the city in foreign colonies, where they hear their own language and live their old life, and thus hinders their proper employment and especially their Americanization.

Employment of Immigrants.—The general employment problem of Cincinnati always includes the foreign immigrant, who is served only after the citizen with family has been attended to. Unguided immigrants must take the common labor most easily found, without regard to their qualifications. Thus peasants and farmers enter the mines or crowded factories, while badly needed elsewhere. In Cincinnati the State-City Free Labor Exchange cooperates with the Immigrant Welfare Committee and other social service and private agencies to employ the immigrant. National-municipal employment service may well supersede state-municipal service, since state lines do not define labor markets. Furthermore, Cincinnati immigrant labor easily overflows state boundaries across the river into Kentucky, or even Indiana, where the Ohio government cannot supervise it.

American Standardization of Living.—Generally immigrants are overcrowded in poor houses in unfavorable localities in the lower part or center of the town, with bad sanitation and lax regulation of morals. They receive low wages, from which they must save for seasons of constantly recurring unemployment by living below American standards. In coming into American cities these foreigners have left behind their native customs without knowing American ways. They need governmental protection against overcrowding, poor housing, unsanitary conditions, and lack of bathing facilities. But what they need most is instruction in the English language and domestic education in school and home. They need social centers, clubs, or national or international social institutions outside of saloons. These should be open daily, and all the year round. Cincinnati shares all these needs with other cities of America. Only a beginning has been made toward meeting them.

Savings, Investments, and Credit.—Many immigrants economize to the point of self-deprivation and save large proportions of small earnings. But exploiters prey upon them. Untrust-

worthy land and employment agents defraud them. Saloons and pool rooms are always open. There are some agencies to counteract this downward tendency. For instance, the Jewish Social Settlement gives savings, loan and investment, social, and educational opportunities to immigrant Jews which are highly appreciated; but other foreign immigrants save for their own clubs, are left largely to learn by costly and often very bitter experience. Proper rural credits could easily make independent farmers of many hardworking laborers now too often unemployed or employed in unsuitable occupations. Trustworthy agricultural colonies and working men's home projects need to be introduced more fully to Cincinnati immigrants.

(Photo by Felix J. Koch)

CLASS AT SCHOOL OF NATURALIZATION

Education.—In the United States more than 1,500,000 white immigrants over 10 years old are illiterate. Of 900,000 between 15 and 20 years of age, not more than 12 per cent go to school; 2,500,000 over 21 years old cannot speak English; and only 36,000 of them are going to night or day school to learn it. There is no compulsory education law for them, and only inadequate private or municipal efforts are made to educate them.

In 1910 only 7.9 per cent of the foreign-born males of voting age in Cincinnati were illiterate. This is a lower percentage than in any other large city of the United States.

Since 1909 Cincinnati has maintained growing public night school classes in English for foreigners. These are largely concentrated in the Sherman School, which teaches 300 to 400 in eleven classes during October to May. Similar classes have been opened elsewhere in the Peaslee School and Sands School and Dyer School, for the convenience of immigrants of their districts. The Jews have their settlement and Hebrew Men's Association. Christian religious and social service organizations have English classes in churches or schoolrooms for Italians, Rumanians, Syrians, and so on, that are of neighborly value also to the immigrants. The public schools, on the whole, are best prepared to teach language to immigrants, as they are to Americans. They have the trained teachers, equipment, books, and experience. Mission classes and classes voluntarily taught may, however, greatly increase their own efficiency under supervision of the public school authorities.

Naturalization.—More than half the foreign-born white adult males in the United States are not naturalized. More than 3,500,000 of them are eligible for citizenship, and then more than 500,000 have their "first papers." The extension of equal suffrage would make 5,000,000 foreign-born women eligible for the ballot.

Public authorities as a rule have not tried to prepare aliens for citizenship, and there is no governmental agency to direct them toward intelligent participation in American public affairs. In March, 1915, a third of the candidates for naturalization in Cincinnati failed to pass their examinations in court for want of knowledge of government. Since then a majority of the candidates for early naturalization have attended a night school course. This course leads to diplomas at the Sherman School, Eighth and Mound, and is acceptable to the court as evidence of intellectual fitness without further examination. Candidates for later naturalization are given a fuller course of preparation for citizenship in the same school. Lectures on citizenship at the Young Men's Christian Association, Seventh and Walnut, and citizenship classes in the Jewish Social Settlement, Clinton Street, and in one or more mission night schools are attended by many candidates for naturalization. The immigrant once having learned to read and write English is capable of rapid Americanization by the direct approach of friendly American citizens, who may well prize this opportunity for service and

mutual acquaintance. Some of the immigrants in their own land are well trained. One can meet those who read Homer and Ruskin and the poetry of Dante; actors, writers, members of good, intelligent families, eating their hearts out in silence, degradation, debt, and obscurity, for want of proper welcome and aid. Some have risen above their limitations and become in turn helpers of hundreds of thousands of their fellow sufferers. They went "to prepare a place" for the rest. It is such as they from whom suggestions for the real need of the immigrant will best come.

Delinquents, Dependents, and Defectives.—Alien delinquents have received more attention than dependents and defectives. Immigration has not increased crime. Alien criminality is attributable largely to congestion in cities; and most delinquencies are minor, for instance, peddling without licenses. Dependency is a serious problem. The States believe that the national government should here bear or share the responsibility. Investigations are being made into the number of alien public charges, and the extent to which immigration has increased the number of insane. In Cincinnati, as elsewhere, the courts, public employment offices, hospitals, and other relief agencies need adequate interpreters, holding licenses revokable for the neglect or exploitation of aliens. The courts should also prevent exorbitant charges by bondsmen and other persons, in many cases foreign-born themselves, who make a business of profiting by the arrest of immigrants.

The immigrants of the newer sorts (as of the older) are healthy, vigorous, ambitious, and aspiring. With reasonable consideration by government and citizens, they may all become desirable American citizens.

Protection of Life and Property

CHAPTER VI

The Public Health

In a broad sense, it can be said that the key to continued good health for both the individual and the community is cleanliness. The duty of the individual, therefore, is so to conduct himself that he shall neither contract a preventable illness nor be the cause of spreading illness to his neighbor.

Frequently individuals resent precautions taken by the public officials to limit the spread of communicable diseases, claiming that they are being deprived of their personal liberty. Such persons fail to discriminate between liberty and license. "One man's personal liberty ends where another man's personal liberty begins." Sickness often leads to permanent disability. Those permanently disabled become dependents and must be cared for by the general public through general taxation. No man has an inherent right so to conduct himself that, as a result of his actions, he transforms himself into a dependent member of society, and so forces some other man or men to support him.

The adoption of methods to preserve the health of individual members of the community is of comparatively recent origin. While certain crude precautions have been taken at all times during the world's history, many were without value and had no scientific basis.

The methods adopted operate through a number of agencies. In a general way, their field includes supervision of the air we breathe, the houses in which we live, the soil on which our places of abode or occupation are built, the food we eat, the water we drink, the disposal of our waste products, the care of those sick with communicable diseases, and even means for our recreation.

HEALTH DEPARTMENTS

Legislatures, recognizing the value of good health, have passed laws making it compulsory for cities to organize departments of health. States also have their boards or departments

of health, and our national government has established a bureau for work in this important field.

United States Public Health Service. This organization is doing work about which comparatively few individuals know anything at all. Its representatives can be found in all parts of the world, especially in those parts in which cholera, the plague, typhus fever, malaria fever, smallpox, and other communicable diseases are prevalent, which may reach our shores in the ordinary exchange of commercial products.

The men connected with this service are highly trained experts; and while their chief duty is the exclusion of disease from our shores, they perform invaluable service in tracing sources of epidemics occurring in the United States, in determining the methods of transmission of diseases not yet understood, in locating sources of pollution occurring in public water supplies, and in laboratory study of unsolved public health problems.

State Boards of Health.—The State Board of Health for Ohio, with offices located in Columbus, consists of seven members appointed by the Governor and the Attorney General.

This board has supervision of all matters relating to the preservation of the life and health of the people of the state, and has supreme authority in quarantine matters. It has the power to make general sanitary regulations, and to make and enforce orders in local matters when emergency exists. Its work is highly efficient. Its monthly bulletin, "The Ohio Public Health Journal," is recognized abroad as one of the best issued in this country.

Cincinnati Department of Health.—Under the laws of the State of Ohio, departments of health, unless otherwise provided for in a special charter, are under the control of a Board of Health consisting of five members and the mayor, who is president of the board by reason of his office. Appointments are made for a period of five years, one vacancy occurring each year.

The Cincinnati Department of Health is created and continued in accordance with this law. Its work is carried on under seven main divisions, namely:

Administration,
Medical Inspection,
Sanitary Inspection,
Food Inspection,
Laboratory,
Tuberculosis Dispensary,
Vital Statistics.

Medical Inspection and Relief. –The work of this division includes medical relief for the poor sick, surveillance over communicable diseases, operation of the dental clinic, and operation of pure milk stations in summer.

Every year thousands of sick poor people are visited in their homes or are seen in the offices of the district physicians. In this way many communicable diseases are discovered in children who have been absent from school, but without medical attendance, the parents not knowing the cause of what they thought to be an unimportant, transient indisposition.

Inspections are made to discover physical conditions that lower school efficiency, such as enlarged tonsils, the presence of adenoids, or some defect in sight or hearing. Cases found are referred to family physicians, clinics, or hospitals for treatment. Additional inspections are made to detect conditions which may handicap one's efficiency through adult life or render one wholly dependent, such as curvature of the spine, bone and joint disease, epilepsy, St. Vitus' dance, etc. When discovered, every effort is made to procure proper treatment at a time when permanent cure can be expected.

Thousands of children receive treatment in the free dental clinic every year. This results in a higher percentage of attendance in school and a higher average scholarship of those attending.

The school nurse attends to minor conditions under the direction of the district physician. She visits in the families of the children, instructing parents in infant hygiene; follows up the recommendations of the district physician in securing glasses or in procuring operations where necessary; gives treatments in babies' sore eyes, thereby preventing blindness; oversees the work in the pure milk stations, and in numerous other ways aids in bringing about a higher average condition of health.

Special attention is directed to the care and treatment of those children who are anæmic because of disease or insufficient food, practically all of these being on the border line of tuberculosis. Special care is given to those children in the open air schools.

All communicable diseases are reportable, and their proper isolation is a part of the work of this division. Quarantine is maintained throughout the disease and for a variable period

(depending upon the disease) following recovery. In cases of smallpox every person known to have been exposed is vaccinated. Diphtheria, scarlet fever, cerebro-spinal meningitis, etc., call for close supervision, and their control is largely a matter of quarantine. In all cases of diphtheria, scarlet fever, and typhoid fever, the source of the milk supply in the family is investigated, for the reason that these diseases are sometimes spread through an infected milk supply.

"Better babies contests" and "little mothers' clubs" are organized for the purpose of spreading information as to the care of infants.

Sanitary Inspection.—Under this division fall inspections of bakeshop, barbershop, and saloon; surveillance over water supplies, sewage disposal, ventilation, plumbing, stagnant pools and ponds, and improper drainage, and the sanitary condition of homes, theaters, business houses, workshops, and factories. For example, cases of typhoid fever occurring in a family using cistern, well, or spring water call for an investigation of the water, and this investigation is made by this division.

The use of well water is always dangerous. The clearest, most sparkling water may carry deadly typhoid germs. Fortunately Cincinnatians are supplied pure water by the city water works, so that wells are unnecessary. The Health Department is active in securing the abandonment of wells or cisterns, and will test free of charge any water submitted for such purpose.

During the past five years over ten thousand sewer connections have been made, largely because of the activity of this department, and an equal number of outside closets have been abandoned and filled.

Nothing is more important to the health of a community than proper disposal of wastes.

Food Inspection.—The health of a community also depends in large part upon the purity of the food supply, and this applies particularly to the infant population. It has long been recognized that infant mortality, due to intestinal diseases, is greatly influenced by the purity or lack of purity of the milk supply. In fact, it can be said that the mortality rate from intestinal diseases in infants under two years of age is an index to the purity of the milk supply used by these infants.

Milk and dairy inspection in Cincinnati has reached a state

of perfection rarely found in large cities. The results, due to this work and other educational factors, are shown in the rapid decline in the number of deaths among infants under two years

DIARRHEA AND ENTERITIS (UNDER TWO YEARS)

Death Rate in Cincinnati, compared with the average death rate of registration cities in the United States. Compiled from U. S. Mortality Statistics.

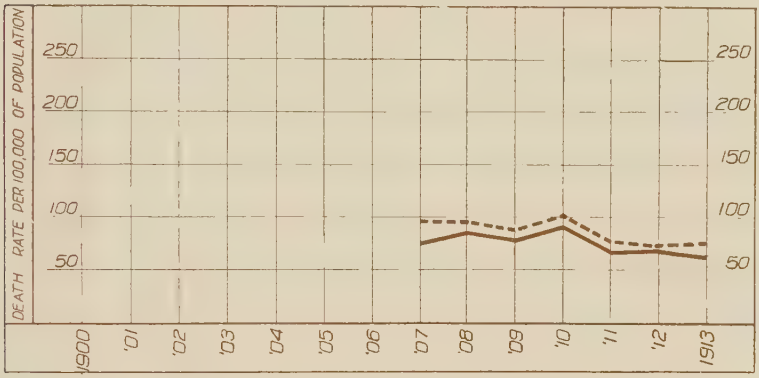


CHART 3.

from intestinal disorders. The death rate from this cause in Cincinnati is much below the average rate of the registration cities of the United States, as shown by chart 3.

In presenting the figures which follow, it is well to bear in mind that our population has increased from 364,463 in 1910, to about 402,000 in 1914.

Year.	Dairies Under Inspection.	Average Bacterial Count.	Deaths Under 2 Years, Intestinal Diseases.
1910	350	5,500,000	378
1911	3,500	770,000	272
1912	3,500	520,000	272
1913	3,500	460,000	245
1914	3,500	410,000	229

At present, all milk, with the exception of that certified and inspected, is pasteurized. This means that it is heated to a temperature of 146 degrees Fahrenheit, held at that heat for thirty minutes, and then quickly cooled to 50 degrees Fahrenheit. This adds to its keeping qualities and destroys all disease germs, such as those causing typhoid fever, diphtheria, scarlet fever, septic sore throat, infantile diarrhea, and foot and mouth disease.

Meat inspection in Cincinnati is comparable in efficiency with that of the Federal Government. Meat and dairy in-

spectors must be graduates of a recognized school of veterinary medicine, must have a state license, and must pass a civil service examination. All meat offered for sale must bear the inspection stamp of the United States Government or city meat inspection service.

In addition to meat and milk, inspection is given to all varieties of food offered for sale and of all places where it is manufactured, stored, sold, or processed. Decayed articles of food, such as fruits and vegetables, nuts and eggs, and adulterated food products of many kinds have been seized and destroyed by the Health Department.

Laboratory.—In the old days, sight, smell, and taste were the guides to purity of foods, or the sole aids in arriving at a diagnosis in disease. Chemistry and bacteriology now furnish a more accurate and conclusive means to this end.

Milk and a wide variety of other foods are submitted for chemical examination, the object in the majority of cases being to discover the variety and degree of adulteration. Liquors and various powders ("dope") are tested to decide the character of drug contained. Water suspected of being the source of typhoid fever has its character determined, and on the result depends further action by the department. Water found to be polluted is condemned, and connections with the city water mains are forced. Tests are made in theaters, churches, moving picture shows, schoolrooms, etc., to determine the purity of the atmosphere. The contents of swimming pools are also examined to determine the presence of pollution.

The bacteriologist examines specimens from the throats of children for the presence of the germ causing diphtheria; sputum from those suspected of having tuberculosis, for the tubercle bacillus; blood from those suspected of being ill from malaria or typhoid; and the brains of dogs thought to have been suffering from hydrophobia.

During 1914 the laboratory made nearly 24,000 examinations, the average cost being a little over fifteen cents, the cheapest municipal service in the country.

Tuberculosis Dispensary.—Through the Anti-Tuberculosis League and the Health Department, a tuberculosis dispensary is maintained for the treatment of tuberculous patients. Regular clinic hours are held, and examinations, advice, and medicine are furnished free of cost.

Cases are followed up in the home by nurses, and advice is given on home hygiene, the object being to prevent additional members of the same household from becoming infected. A large percentage of first-stage cases are cured, and many second and third-stage cases receive marked benefit.

Vital Statistics.—A record of births and deaths occurring in the community is kept. These records are of enormous importance. Death records immediately direct the attention of the department to unusual prevalence of preventable diseases, and automatically place in operation preventive measures. They are also necessary for the settling of estates in cases concerning the persons and property of minors, for the collection of life insurance, and for securing widows' pensions.

Birth records are necessary to prove age and relationship in the enforcement of compulsory education and child labor laws, to establish nativity, and in various other ways.

All these things are done by the city at the expense of the whole people in order to preserve the lives and health of our citizens. It is only within the last hundred years or so that cities have taken much thought or many steps toward preserving public health. As late as thirty years after the founding of Cincinnati, and when the population was about 20,000, municipal expense of this sort in 1829 was but $747.44. The present annual expense is about $100,000. Much more than this could be spent to very good advantage. For nothing can be more important or of greater value to the public than those things which should tend to preserve the lives of the people.

Hospitals.—The city in its *General Hospital* has one of the finest in the United States, probably as good as any in the world. General medical and surgical conditions are handled in this hospital. Special wards are set aside for contagious diseases, such as diphtheria and scarlet fever. This is done in the endeavor to limit the spread of these destroyers of child life.

A particularly anomalous condition is presented in the fact that the indigent citizen is able to receive attention that the average taxpayer is unable to afford in his home.

The *Tuberculosis Hospital*, located in the western hills, is performing valuable work in limiting the spread of tuberculosis. It is estimated that each case cured in this institution or each person confined in it saves three other individuals from contracting the disease. Under ideal conditions, tuberculosis can

be treated in the home with little danger to the other inmates; but the trouble lies in the fact that these ideal conditions are seldom found. Tuberculosis running through families for several generations is due to conditions in the homes of these families, and not through inheritance of the disease. Wider knowledge of home sanitation will do wonders in reducing our tuberculosis rate.

Anti-Tuberculosis League.—This organization, supported by popular subscriptions, has for its purpose the education of the public concerning the cause and spread of tuberculosis. This is accomplished by personal visits of nurses to the homes of the afflicted, the individual and his family being instructed in

"BAMFORD HILLS"

proper methods of living so that cure may be brought about, and those who are exposed to the disease well guarded against infection; by lectures to mothers' clubs, labor unions, and school children; by operating a clinic where those ill with the disease receive medical treatment and advice; by arranging for better food in the homes of the poor people; and by conducting summer camps in the country for afflicted children, such as "Bamford Hills," on the Little Miami River.

Through the efforts of this organization, combined with the work of the Tuberculosis Hospital and the Tuberculosis Dispensary, in spite of the inadequate financial support, the death rate from tuberculosis in Cincinnati has been reduced from 281 per 100,000 population in 1910 to 239 per 100,000 population in 1914. This record of progress, while encouraging, is far from satisfactory.

Cincinnati's death rate from tuberculosis is still far above that of other American cities. Chart 4 shows that if Cincinnati's rate were as low as the average for the other registration cities, 400 fewer people would die of this disease in Cincinnati each year.

TUBERCULOSIS OF THE LUNGS

Death Rate in Cincinnati, compared with the average death rate of registration cities in the United States. Compiled from U. S. Mortality Statistics

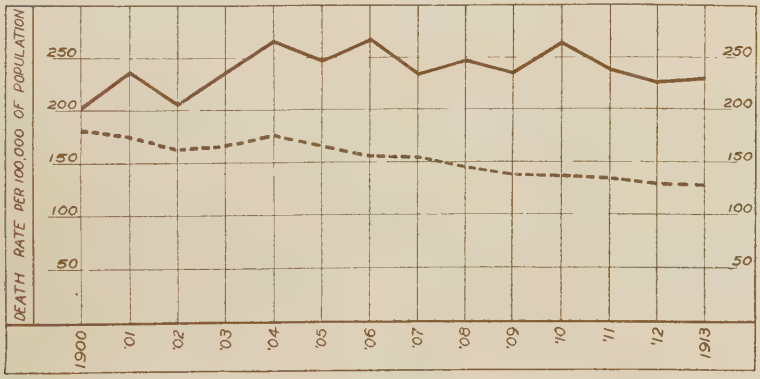


CHART 4.

The city's appropriation for anti-tuberculosis work is and has been very small; it bears only part of the cost of conducting the Tuberculosis Dispensary. Nearly the whole burden of anti-tuberculosis work is borne by private subscriptions to the Anti-Tuberculosis League.

Water Supply.—During the early settlement of this country fine water abounded on every hand. As communities developed, the natural supply became more and more subject to pollution with domestic sewage and industrial waste. Intestinal diseases and dysentery returned time after time in epidemic form.

In the course of time scientific medicine recognized the relationship existing between these diseases and a polluted water supply; and methods of purification came into use. Boiling and the use of house filters were first resorted to. Then finally these inadequate methods were superseded by filtration of a city's entire supply of water.

Cincinnati's filtration plant is located at California, Ohio, within the city's limits. Raw water is pumped from the Ohio River and stands in sedimentation reservoirs for about three

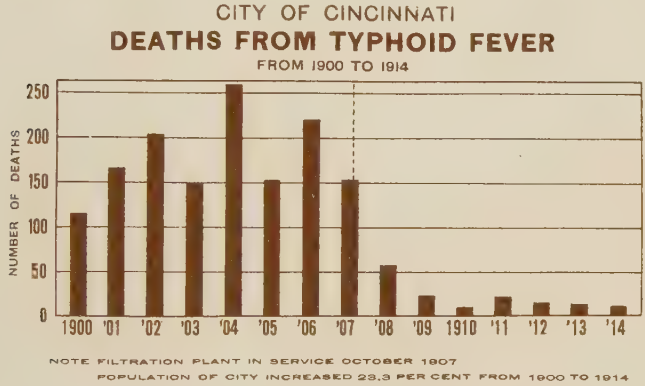
days. During this time about sixty-five per cent of the matter in suspension, including bacteria, is deposited. The water is then led by gravity to the mixing chamber, where it is treated by carbonate of lime and iron sulphate. From here it flows by gravity to another sedimentation basin, where additional deposit occurs. From this point it flows by gravity to the sand filter beds, with a daily capacity of 96,000,000 gallons. Here the filtered water has over ninety-nine per cent of its suspended

THE FILTRATION PLANT: CINCINNATI WATER WORKS

matter, including bacteria, removed. From the filter beds (28 by 50 feet in size, and twenty-eight in number) it flows by gravity through a six-foot tunnel to the Eastern Avenue pumping station for distribution to all parts of the city. It has been asserted that the degree of purification obtained in the Cincinnati filtration plant is unsurpassed by any other plant in the world. The water is clear, palatable, and almost absolutely pure.

Immediately following the installation of the filtration plant typhoid fever began to decline. During the seven years preceding filtration, 1,351 deaths were caused by typhoid. During the seven years following filtration, 249 deaths were due to this cause. With an increase of 50,000 in the population, there has been a saving of 1,102 lives from this one disease alone. According to the Committee of One Hundred on Conservation, this means an economic saving to the community of $5,510,000, a sum sufficient to build about two additional filtration plants, and more than enough to cover one-third of the cost of constructing the entire new water works.

Scientists have claimed (and the claim seems to be borne out by investigators) that one life saved from death by typhoid through an improved water supply means the saving of from two to five more from general causes. If this be true, then Cincinnati's new water works have more than paid for the cost of construction in the seven years following their completion.


CITY OF CINCINNATI
DEATHS FROM TYPHOID FEVER
FROM 1900 TO 1914
NUMBER OF DEATHS
250
200
150
100
50
0
1900 '01 '02 '03 '04 '05 '06 '07 '08 '09 1910 '11 '12 '13 '14
NOTE FILTRATION PLANT IN SERVICE OCTOBER 1907
POPULATION OF CITY INCREASED 23.3 PER CENT FROM 1900 TO 1914

DISPOSAL OF WASTES

Sewerage.—Systems of sewerage are constructed for the purpose of carrying away household and industrial wastes and surface water due to rain and snow. In a general way, these are classified as separate or combined systems. As these terms imply, the separate system provides separate pipes or conduits for domestic wastes and for surface water; while in the combined system, both surface water and domestic wastes are discharged through the same conduits.

Most of the Cincinnati sewers are of the combined type, though the systems installed by several of the annexed villages originally were of the separate type. Invariably in such cases the small sewers provided for household wastes were misused by connecting downspouts and gutter inlets to them, and so converting them into sewers of the combined type.

This misuse of the sewers overtaxed their capacity and resulted in frequently flooded cellars and streets. Such conditions, together with a demand in certain sections for new sewerage and a necessity for the elimination of the pollution of our water courses, Duckcreek, Millcreek, and the Ohio River, constitute the sewerage problem in Cincinnati. At the present time the

sewage from a population of about 150,000 people is discharged into Millcreek, 20,000 into Duckcreek, and 230,000 along the Ohio River front.

Existence of the problem has been recognized for many years, but little was done toward its solution until 1912. During that year and the year following an extensive investigation of the sewage conditions in the city was completed, and the results are published in a very comprehensive report.

This investigation included plans for new sewerage, relief sewerage for overtaxed systems, trunk intercepting sewers to remedy unsanitary conditions in Millcreek, Duckcreek, and the Ohio River, and studies and estimates for the ultimate treatment of the city's sewage before discharge into the Ohio River.

The conclusion of the city's investigation of Ohio River pollution at Cincinnati is that Cincinnati is not at present justified in going to the expense of building and operating a sewage treatment plant, because it is entirely practicable for the present to so treat Ohio River water as to render it safe and satisfactory for domestic supplies below as well as above Cincinnati.

Based on the findings of the Cincinnati investigation, the people in the fall of 1912 authorized an issue of $3,000,000 in bonds for sewer construction. Under this authorization, sewers either are under construction or are already completed in Clifton, Avondale, Madisonville, Winton Place, Hyde Park, and along the course of Millcreek and Duckcreek.

There is a popular misconception of the purpose of the Millcreek trunk sewer, in that it is assumed that it will be large enough to carry the entire flow of Millcreek. This is not the case. This sewer and that under construction in Duckcreek are intercepting sewers. This means simply that in dry weather they will intercept the domestic sewage flowing in the combined sewers which now discharge into these creeks. In times of storm the discharge of the combined sewers in excess of the capacity of the intercepting sewers will flow down the creeks as at present, carrying with it a greatly diluted and comparatively harmless sewage. It is roughly estimated that in order to carry the flow of Millcreek at times of high water, a circular conduit sixty feet in diameter would be needed. Of course such a construction would be altogether impracticable. This illustration is sufficient to indicate the enormous and prohibitive cost of a sewer large enough to convey the waters of Millcreek.

As a part of this sewerage investigation, the city completed two important projects which serve not only their purpose in the re-design of our sewerage system, but are daily of increasing value to the city in all projects for its physical development. These projects are: (1) the making of a topographic map of the city and its environs, together including 102 square miles of area, and (2) the location and platting of all the structures as sewers, water and gas mains, telephone and telegraph conduits which are beneath the city's streets. This underground survey discovered hundreds of miles of sewers of which the city either had no record, or it was incomplete or inaccurate; and for the

CONSTRUCTION OF MILLCREEK INTERCEPTER SEWER, 1915

first time there is made available this information, which is of great value. No effort should be spared by the city to keep this data corrected to date at all times.

The householder should acquaint himself with the sewerage facilities serving his property. Attention should be given not only to the main sewers, but also to the pipes connecting the houses with these sewers. Too often after particular pains are expended in the construction of a sewer does the householder permit his plumber to lay a leaky connection to the sewer. This may result either in an inflow of ground water and therefore a reduction in the capacity of the sewers, or in the pollution

of the soil through leaking sewage. A large proportion of the cases of typhoid fever reported in Cincinnati give a history of drinking water from wells, cisterns or springs; and on examination two-thirds of these show evidence of sewage pollution.

The completion of the comprehensive system of sewers for Cincinnati is a tremendous and urgent work, and will be comparable in cost and sanitary importance with our system of water works.

Garbage Disposal.—Kitchen waste not only gives rise to nuisance due to the odors of decomposition, but is a positive menace, because it furnishes a breeding place for flies. The usual method of disposal is to collect this waste on wagons and remove it to a reduction plant, where it passes through a process which removes the fat and converts the residue into fertilizer. This is the process in use in Cincinnati, the work being done by contract. The reduction plant is the property of the contractor, and the present contract runs to December 1, 1918, the annual cost to the city being $73,960.

Paper and trash should not be thrown upon the streets

Householders must furnish receptacles for this garbage. By the selection of galvanized iron receptacles, reasonably uniform in size and appearance, and with water-tight and dog-proof lids, citizens can add materially to the efficiency of this work in preventing unhealthful conditions. Also, contrary to ordinance, many people mix ashes with the garbage, with the result that the mixture is rejected by the contractor, and it is hauled to dumps by the city, thereby creating a local nuisance.

Street and Sewer Cleaning and Refuse Disposal.—Many residents of our community seem to have little regard for the appearance of the streets, if their own personal acts are a criterion. They not only do not use receptacles placed at street corners by the city for papers and refuse, but for household waste, such as paper and ashes, as well as garbage, they furnish all sorts of containers, ranging from cardboard boxes to old flour barrels. The public should have sufficient civic pride in the appearance and cleanliness of our streets and alleys to furnish proper receptacles for all refuse, ashes, rubbish, sweepings, and garbage.

One problem in connection with the disposal of refuse in our city which deserves more attention than it now receives is the condition of our public and semi-public dumps, and the character of materials deposited upon them. In themselves, the dumps are good things, in that waste lands and unsightly hollows are reclaimed for beneficial uses. Ashes, waste earth, and similar materials can be deposited on these dumps to advantage, but paper and other combustible materials, or ashes mixed with garbage, clearly should not be deposited on these dumps; but if of value, as, for instance, paper, they should be sold. Otherwise such materials should be burned.

The kind of receptacles for garbage and refuse that should *not* be used

The Street Cleaning Department of New York City estimates that the additional cost of that department caused by the throwing of waste materials into the streets is approximately $270,000 annually. There is no reason to suppose that a similar burden is not placed upon the taxpayers of Cincinnati, proportionate to its size. When it is recognized that in addition to this waste of public revenues, all of this material is subject to infection of disease germs, the sanitary importance of quick collection and effective disposal of it is at once apparent.

Smoke Abatement.—The air we breathe may become dangerous to life and health because of the presence of dust, vapors, gases, fumes, or smoke, and certain trades are especially dangerous because of the small particles of animal, vegetable, or mineral products given off during the process of manufacture. They irritate the nose, throat, and bronchial tubes, often bringing about a chronic catarrhal condition which makes development of tuberculosis easy. In order to eliminate this danger, the State has passed laws providing safety devices in the way of powerful exhaust fans which remove the dust-laden atmosphere from buildings. Poisonous fumes and gases are eliminated in a similar way.

Smoke not only irritates the mucous membranes of the respiratory tract, but causes numerous losses, due to the soiling of fabrics. At first glance, one might assume that this loss falls upon the merchant; but this assumption is not correct, for goods not soiled are sold at a high price in order to meet the loss due to soiling. In the end the loss is borne by the general public. The annual loss in Cincinnati due to smoke has been roughly estimated at $6,000,000. In order to eliminate this source of disease and loss, the state has provided laws covering the production of smoke, and defining what constitutes a "smoke nuisance." Also the city of Cincinnati has formulated a "furnace and stack code," in accordance with which all power installations must be constructed. Careful hand stoking of furnaces, the use of mechanical stokers, and the right kind of fuel, together with the proper furnace construction, have done much to correct the smoke evil. The enforcing of this code is in the hands of the chief smoke inspector and his assistants. While the general sources of smoke are the railroad locomotives and stationary power plants, the individual householder should not rest content with "cussing big business," but should recognize that while the smoke from his small heating plant may not be of sufficient density to constitute a violation of the smoke ordinance, it does its little part. Collectively, these small plants scatter a tremendous quantity of soot over our community. Attention has been directed especially to the fact that while many of these small heating plants burn natural gas, thousands use coal, and frequently coal of inferior quality. As it is almost impossible for the furnace conditions to be changed, the practical remedy for smoke from ordinary stoves and furnaces is the use of low volatile fuel.

Before and after being equipped with smoke consuming device

Housing Conditions.—The housing conditions in our city have a very direct bearing upon the state of public health. To make conditions ideal, co-operation must exist between landlord and tenant.

The laws provide that the landlord must furnish sufficient light and air for all rooms, adequate and sanitary toilets and sinks, cleanliness of walls and ceilings, proper lights in halls, sufficient drainage of yards; he must correct structural defects, and provide sufficient means of egress.

The tenant must dispose of all garbage, and keep premises clean and sanitary. These items are vital to health, and unless the tenant conscientiously does his part, efforts of the landlord are futile. The enforcement of these regulations lies in the hands of the tenement inspection service, now (1915) under the direction of the Commissioner of Buildings.

Citizens of the right type cannot be made from children who sleep in dark, windowless rooms; in dwellings much overcrowded, where privacy is unknown, and the water supply is inadequate; where filthy, fly-infested privy vaults are shared by six or eight families; where lots are so overcrowded that there is no room for flowers, vegetables, or even a grass plot; and the children are forced on the street to play.

There are very few cities in the country that have as large a proportion of their people living in tenements as has Cincinnati. One third of our population lives in one-nineteenth of the total area. This is undoubtedly owing to the peculiar conformation of the city, the downtown district being surrounded by bluffs which made the hilltops difficult of access before the introduction of electric street cars. It was during this early period that the down-town section was built up.

The completion of a rapid transit system will help the housing problem

It is important that these overcrowded sections be made as nearly healthy as possible. We have laws, which, if enforced, will bring this about. It is important that citizens insist upon the enforcement of such laws, and that they be made to realize

that bad housing conditions contribute to ill health, short lives, and a low standard of morality.

The completion of a rapid transit system providing quick and cheap transportation between one suburb and another, and between the city and suburbs, will go far toward a solution of the housing problem. Cincinnatians, by becoming acquainted with the bad effects upon health and morals due to the present congestion of population and improper housing conditions, can be in a position to take all possible steps to correct the situation.

Duty of the Public.—Disease prevention has become a popular subject for general discussion. It has led to the formation of various societies and brought about many important changes in sanitary conditions. People are gradually obtaining a wider knowledge of the causes of disease, and are making a concerted effort to eliminate these causes. Fresh air societies, anti-tuberculosis leagues, and medical milk commissions have done valuable educational work.

Medical inspection of school children, improved conditions in workshops and factories, closer surveillance over communicable diseases, a wider knowledge of infant hygiene, and increased efficiency of Health Department work in general have contributed to this result. Tenement house inspection, the elimination of over 10,000 privy vaults, a higher average sanitary condition of the homes in the city generally, flushing of streets and alleys, our new water works, and other conditions have all contributed their share toward bringing about a lowering of the general death rate. The death rate, however, is still much higher than it ought to be.

Every one should take every possible step to contribute to a state of better public health. The first thing is to know the facts; the next is to know the remedy; the third is to help to carry out the remedy.

In order that the health agencies of the city render their greatest service to the community, there must exist close cooperation between these agencies and all the citizens. Without such cooperation, little can be accomplished. With a keen sense of personal responsibility in every citizen, the battle is more than half won. The first duty of the citizen is to keep his own person and premises clean, and to conform to all health regulations. For instance, he should properly care for garbage and other waste; he should refrain from throwing refuse into

the streets, and from spitting on the streets or street cars—the one a thoughtless action, and the other a despicable habit, both, unfortunately, all too common, and often committed by persons who know or should know better. Much may be done by example to prevent others from producing unsanitary conditions. Furthermore, it is a citizen's right and duty to influence other citizens and officers to perform good work. In recent years there has been a remarkable awakening of the people in the United States in this matter of public health, as in all other matters relating to civic affairs.

The people are beginning to realize that the best life insurance is that which prevents or removes unhealthy conditions.

CHAPTER VII

The Police Department

The history of the Cincinnati police force goes back almost to the time when Cincinnati was incorporated as a village in 1802. The year following, a night-watch, consisting of citizens who served without pay, was established. Each watchman carried a watchman's rattle as a signal, and a large perforated tin lantern. In 1817 the police service for night duty consisted only of a captain and six assistants. Not until 1834 were provisions regularly made for the payment of persons engaged in police duty. No provisions were made for the day-watch until 1842. Two persons were then selected for the day-watch and paid at the rate of $1.25 per day.

In 1886 a non-partisan police force of the city of Cincinnati was created by an act of the Legislature. Four Police Commissioners, not more than two of each political party, were appointed by the Governor. Members of the force were examined and appointed, regardless of their political or religious affiliations. The same system is in force to-day, with the exception that instead of a board of four commissioners, one man, the Director of Public Safety, is in charge of the whole police department. He is appointed by and is directly responsible to the Mayor. The examinations are held by the Civil Service Commission.

Membership.—Applicants must submit to a thorough physical examination, a part of which is an endurance test in running on the gymnasium track. This examination is a rigid one, the average proportion of those examined who pass being only one man in every five.

Applicants are also required to undergo an examination in reading, writing, spelling, a knowledge of the topography of the

city, and in the criminal laws of the state and ordinances of the city, in so far as they apply to the police service. An average percentage of seventy is required to place the applicant on the eligible list. Appointments are made as vacancies occur, the selection being made from the three highest on the list. Any elector between the ages of twenty-one and thirty-two is eligible to membership on the police force, provided he passes the required examination.

All appointees start as patrolmen. The first year's salary is $900. This is increased annually to the fourth year, by which time it reaches $1,100. Any patrolman who has served three years, and whose record is clear, is eligible to take an examination for promotion. All appointments are made from the grade next below.

All are allowed fourteen days' vacation with pay each year. When they are sick they are attended gratis by the police surgeons. Although their regular pay then stops, they are allowed $1.75 per day from the Relief Association during such a sickness.

A pension system has been established which provides for those who have served continuously for twenty-five years and have reached the age of fifty years, as well as for those permanently disabled by sickness or from injury, and for the families of those killed while in the discharge of police duty.

The police force in 1915 consisted of 705 members, graded as follows:

1	Chief.
3	Inspectors.
1	Lieutenant of Detectives.
1	Sergeant of Detectives.
34	Detectives.
32	Lieutenants.
32	Sergeants.
17	Corporals (this rank to be abolished).
543	Patrolmen.
28	Drivers (this rank to be abolished).
9	Station-house keepers (this rank to be abolished).
4	Matrons.

Organization.—The city is divided into ten police districts. Each has a headquarters, called a station house, at which all members assigned to duty in that district report.

On account of recent annexations and increased area of the

city, it has been found necessary to subdivide the city so as to introduce what has been termed "sub-stations." These are located in the outlying districts, and are used as a headquarters for the police patroling such territory. This plan avoids long trips and delays that would occur if the men had to report to the regular district headquarters. At each sub-station is stationed a patrolman or corporal, whose principal duty is to answer all calls for police assistance coming from his particular district. A motorcycle is used for the purpose of responding quickly to all these calls. This motorcycle service has been found very satisfactory.

Each police district is divided into beats so arranged that every part of the district is covered both day and night by a policeman on duty. The men work in three reliefs of eight hours each, reporting for duty at 7 A. M., 3 P. M., and 11 P. M. At the hours mentioned, roll call is held, when all necessary information and orders are communicated to the men going on duty.

The department is organized on a military basis, the force as a whole being taken as a regiment. The Chief of Police is titled colonel; the ranking inspector, lieutenant-colonel; two inspectors, as major; then come lieutenants, sergeants, and corporals; then patrolmen and other subordinates ranking as privates. There are ten companies, and the men are drilled at stated intervals in the United States Army tactics.

In addition to the regular district service, there is the detective department, auto-patrol service, mounted service, and traffic police.

The detective department is principally for the purpose of ferreting out crime and arresting criminals. An adjunct of the detective department is the bureau of criminal indentification. Here all criminals and numerous suspects are taken for examination and measurements. The records made are of very great importance to the police in keeping track of this class of persons. The Bertillon and finger-print systems are used in the Cincinnati bureau, which ranks with the best in the country.

In the auto-patrol service are ten auto-patrols. The patrols are used for hauling prisoners to and from the stations and court, removing sick and injured persons to the hospitals, and lending aid in all cases of serious accidents and injuries to persons and property.

The mounted service is used principally in patroling sparsely settled territory in the suburbs, and also in keeping traffic moving in the down-town congested streets.

The traffic police are stationed at the various corners in the down-town districts. Their principal duty is to see that traffic moves as expeditiously and safely as possible.

MOUNTED TRAFFIC OFFICER AT WORK

Duties of the Police.—According to the law, it is the duty of policemen at all times of the day and night to preserve the public peace within the boundaries of the city; prevent crime; arrest offenders; protect rights of persons and property; guard the public health; preserve order; remove nuisances existing in the public streets, roads, places, and highways; report all leaks or other defects in water pipes and sewers to the proper authorities; assist at every fire, in order that thereby the firemen and property may be protected; protect strangers and travelers at steamboat landings and railway stations; arrest and detain any person found violating any law of the state of Ohio or any legal ordinance of the city of Cincinnati until a legal warrant can be obtained; and generally to enforce and obey all ordinances of the city and criminal laws of the state and of the United States to the best of their ability, and all rules and regulations of the police department.

A book of rules called the "Police Manual" is furnished each member upon his appointment. He is required to familiarize himself with these rules and regulations, and is frequently examined as to his knowledge of them.

There are several reasons why too often policemen in cities do not fully perform the duties imposed upon them. In the first place, the members of a community do not all take the same attitude toward all offenses. While all are agreed as to the treatment of such crimes as murder, arson, robbery, there is a great difference of opinion in regard to the treatment of such offenses as gambling, certain kinds of entertainment, and evasion of the liquor laws. Then the usual disregard of a large part of the public of such ordinances as those against the littering of streets and those compelling the removal of snow from sidewalks also has brought about a spirit of lawlessness among certain people. On the other hand, among the religious classes there is a tendency to penalize every act which they regard as sinful, and at times through state legislation may be seen the attempt of rural communities to force upon cities standards of morals and living which the inhabitants of the cities as a whole do not accept.

The policemen in any city will be of just as high a type as the public demands. A city whose people are indifferent as to enforcement of law and lenient toward criminal acts will have inferior policemen. A city whose people demand obedience to law will have a high type of policemen. It is gratifying to remember that the Cincinnati police force is generally admitted to be among the best in the country. In order that the police department may do its full duty and enforce the laws, everybody should scrupulously obey them and condemn disobedience in others whenever found. If this is done public sentiment will support a more strict enforcement of law by the police.

Laws should either be strictly obeyed and enforced, or they should be repealed.

The necessity of selecting men of good character for policemen is evident when we remember that "to the rank and file, the policeman is the exemplar of our governmental system. He is a reality that the most ignorant can comprehend; and upon his impartiality, efficiency, intelligence, and good conduct depend the estimation in which the law is largely held by the masses. It is not too much to say that the police, more than any other organ of government, influences public and private morality and fixes the standard of civic ideals."

The Chief of Police should be a man who has received his appointment free from political influence, and one who is thor-

oughly familiar with police business. He should hold office during good behavior and efficiency, and should be a man of high moral character, firm in upholding the law, but full of kindness and consideration for the unfortunate.

"The ideal policeman," says Dr. Woods Hutchison, "should be the wisest, not necessarily the best educated, the broadest-minded, the kindliest man on his beat; the first and easiest man for anyone in difficulty to tell his troubles to, instead of the last and hardest; a combination of outdoor teacher, health officer, and walking judge of an open-air children's court for children of all ages." In this connection, the policeman of good moral character has a great opportunity to give to boys correct ideas of law and order.

Duties of the Public.—The attitude of the public toward the policeman is thus a matter of greatest importance in obtaining good government. The policeman should be regarded as the embodiment of honor and dignity and justice of the law, the friend and protector of the people, the counselor of every class of unfortunates in distress. All people should feel it their duty to assist the policeman in upholding the law, and at all times to observe it themselves, and to assist by personal influence and active cooperation when necessary.

CHAPTER VIII

Fire Prevention and Extinction

"The buildings consumed, if placed on lots of 65-foot frontage, would line both sides of a street extending from New York to Chicago. A person passing along this street of desolation would pass in every thousand feet a ruin from which an injured person was taken. At every three-quarters of a mile in this journey he would encounter the charred remains of a human being who had been burnt to death."

(From page 12, government report "The Fire Tax and Waste of Structural Materials in the United States." Bulletin 418, Department of the Interior, United States Geological Survey.)

Fire Loss.—The average annual fire waste in the United States is about $250,000,000; necessary fire protective measures cost about $60,000,000 more, in all about $3 each year for every person in the United States. This is equivalent to $30,000 per hour, or burning of a $5,000 home every ten minutes.

The fire loss in Cincinnati for 1913 was $1,083,181, or $2.77 per capita. By means of a vigorous clean-up and paint-up campaign directed by the Chamber of Commerce, together with the activities of others interested in fire prevention, this loss was reduced to $370,537.95 in 1915, a rate of $0.90 per capita. The city spends each year for the fire department about $765,000 ($1.91 per capita), which should also be charged to fire cost.

Contrasted with our experience, the fire loss in European cities averages only about 30 cents per capita, a little more than *one-tenth* that for the United States.

What causes this difference between the fire loss abroad and in this country?

1. Europe makes a larger use of non-combustible building material.

2. Better building codes and more stringent enforcement of the same prevail in Europe.

3. Buildings are generally of a lower height and cover smaller areas than in American cities.

4. In some European countries, persons upon whose premises fires originate are held responsible for any damage caused by the spreading of the fires to other property, and damages may be recovered for any loss thus incurred. Only recently the Attorney General of Ohio has decided that, under certain conditions, a similar ruling applies in Ohio.

5. The influence of an older civilization makes people the more careful of small savings, and in all the affairs of life they are more cautious than we have yet become in America.

6. Perhaps the greatest cause for excessive fire waste in the United States is the ignorance, carelessness, and indifference of the people in regard to fire waste.

Fire Insurance.—Fire waste is a tax on all. The insurance companies simply collect from all and pay to those who have fires, taking for themselves about one-half for the cost of distribution and profit. In America this cost is about one per cent of the policy value of property insured, whereas in western Europe it is about one-tenth of one per cent of the policy value.

As fire waste is reduced the cost of insurance automatically falls in proportion. As a result of the decrease in fire waste in Cincinnati in 1914, insurance rates on down-town business property were reduced from five to eight per cent below previous rates, a net saving to policy holders of perhaps $160,000.

The great annual fire loss is a tax distributed nation-wide, to which all must contribute whether they own property or not. It is paid in higher rents, higher prices for food and clothing, higher credit rates, and higher interest on loans. "In the large, it can be said that every workman pays thus approximately three dollars yearly for every member of his family through either one or all of these channels."

Fire Prevention.—In addition to the collection and distribution of money to pay fire waste, the insurance companies of the United States, through the National Board of Underwriters, the National Fire Protective Association, and the Underwriters' Laboratories, are the greatest single influence for fire prevention in America.

The National Board of Fire Underwriters confines itself to

publicity about fire waste and related matters. It promulgates recommendations of the other two organizations about all subjects relating to the construction, protection, and occupation of buildings, and to the standardization and improvement of fire-fighting methods.

The Underwriters' Laboratories is conducted by the engineering branches of the insurance companies. It collects and systematizes field observations of inspectors throughout the country; conducts tests of materials, equipment, methods concerning construction, protection and occupation of buildings. All electrical, lighting, and fire-prevention devices must first be tested and approved by the Underwriters' Laboratories, promulgated by the National Fire Protective Association and published by the National Board of Fire Underwriters, or their use is penalized through a rise of insurance rates in buildings where these devices are used. These organizations determine the standards of construction, protection, and occupation of buildings. They lend assistance to architects, engineers, building engineers, and inspectors by giving them expert advice concerning fire prevention.

The Cincinnati Fire Prevention Bureau, employing a corps of engineers, publishes reports and surveys on fire risks in Cincinnati and vicinity; publishes rates and underwriters' rules; advises builders and occupants of ways to reduce the hazards of fire for the protection of life and property; and fixes the rate reduction earned by the protection.

The Commissioner of Buildings.—Every city and every State building code includes fire-prevention provisions. Unfortunately, there is no uniformity in them. Some states and cities are thus excellently protected, but unless regulations are properly enforced they are of little value. Our own building regulations are first class.

No more important duty devolves upon the Commissioner of Buildings than that related to fire prevention. It is the business of the individual taxpayer to know that fire prevention regulations are good and that they are well enforced.

Fire Prevention Laws.—Good fire prevention laws, properly enforced, immediately reduce the fire risk. For example, with the revision of fire-prevention laws in Ohio, the fire waste dropped from eleven million dollars to seven million dollars annually within a period of six years.

Correct fire legislation should provide for:

1. Rigid inspection and regulation of the financial standing of insurance companies.

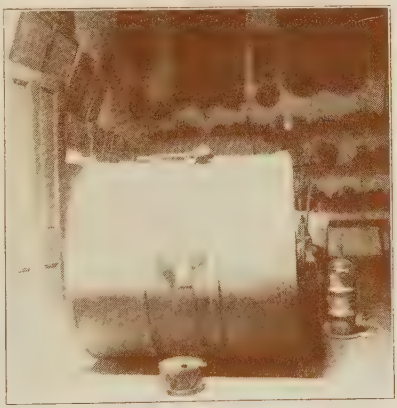
2. The examination and licensing of agents, so as to provide honest and intelligent insuring of policies.

3. Laws against improperly constructed or improperly protected occupied buildings.

The State Fire Marshal.—The laws of Ohio provide for all of these. The enforcement of fire-prevention laws in Ohio is centralized in the State Fire Marshal. He has practically the same concentrated control over the buildings as regards fire danger that the Board of Health has as regards sanitation. He can order buildings demolished or repaired, and has ample power to enforce his orders.

City Fire Department.—In Cincinnati, the city Fire Department carries on inspection of properties, both to know them in case of fire and to prevent in advance conditions which lead to fire.

This department had its origin in the early part of the last century, when Cincinnati was a village. The first fire ordinance in Cincinnati, passed by the village council July 17, 1802, provided that every freeholder and every person paying a rental of thirty-six dollars per year must provide a leather bucket, and contribute the use of it and his own exertions whenever he should hear a cry of fire. Every male citizen between 16 and 50 years of age was required to serve at fires.



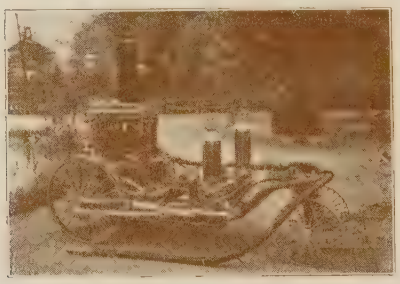
THE OLD FIRE DRUM; USED UNTIL 1824

The first building regulation, passed November 4, 1805, was a step for fire prevention, and provided that chimneys should be built of stone or brick laid in lime mortar, and should extend at least one foot and a half above the ridge of the building.

In 1808 a hand fire engine was purchased and the Union Fire Company formed. The Cincinnati Fire Bucket Company,

organized at the same time, had an equipment consisting of a large willow basket 10 feet long, 6 feet high, on a four-wheel truck, and containing leather buckets. Each householder was required to keep two buckets on his premises. A gigantic drum 5 feet high and 16 feet 5 inches in circumference, located on top of a carpenter shop at what is now the east end of Fountain Square, was used until 1824 as a fire signal. Afterward the Presbyterian Church bell, Fourth and Main Streets, was used for that purpose until 1845.

The volunteer fire departments, of which there were quite a number, played a prominent part in the city's affairs for many years in politics and social affairs, as well as putting out fires. In 1829 there were nine such companies, with three hundred members, who by law were exempted from militia duty and from laboring on the highways. Twelve years later the number of members had increased to 833.



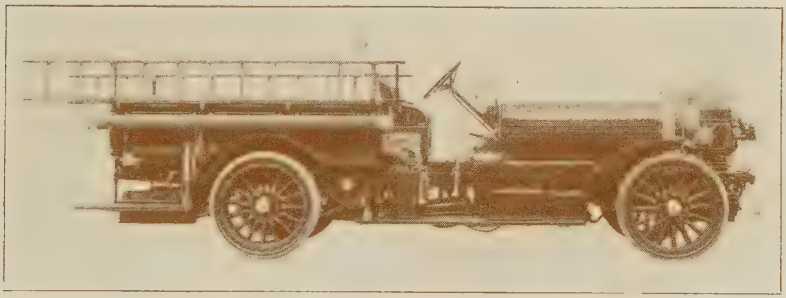
THE FIRST STEAM FIRE ENGINE
Made by Latta, in Cincinnati

The construction of the first successful steam fire engine by Alexander Latta, of this city, brought about the change from volunteer to paid firemen in 1853. Miles Greenwood, a prominent manufacturer, was the leader in this movement, and was the first fire chief. Greenwood paid a man $1,500 per year to manage his foundry while he devoted all his time to the organization of the department. He paid the salary of his assistant chief out of his own pocket. For his entire term of office he assigned his own salary to the treasury of the Ohio Mechanics' Institute.

Cincinnati had the first paid fire department in the United States, and since its organization it has maintained a high standard of efficiency. At first there were 16 companies, with a pay roll of $78,444; there are now 75 companies, with a pay roll of over $700,000.

With regard to recent improvements in the Fire Department, the annual city report for 1913 says: "The motorization of the department was begun in 1913, with 18 pieces of automobile apparatus consisting of two automobile pumping engines and hose trucks, ten new-type automobile combination "booster

pump" tank and hose wagons, four district marshals' auto runabouts, one automobile chemical engine, and one auto fuel truck. There are now twenty-five pieces of automobile apparatus. With the introduction of the automobile, the flying squad system was inaugurated. The principal squad is used to assist engine and hook-and-ladder companies in getting speedily to work. It makes all first-alarm runs in the down-town congested districts and responds to extra alarm fires in factory and other "danger risk" districts. A chemical engine flying squad also responds to alarms in the congested districts. The auto hose wagons are utilized for squad purposes in responding to alarms in danger zones in districts contiguous to their territories."



MODERN AUTO FIRE ENGINE. MADE IN CINCINNATI

The automobile apparatus has already proved its worth in time saving and ground covering ability. The squad system has worked out successfully, and has prevented and doubtless will prevent many bad fires by the quick action secured. The further addition of automobile apparatus will make it possible to reduce the number of fire stations, the number of men, and the cost of operating the department, and at the same time increase its efficiency.

Fire Department Inspections.—All the above activities of the fire department are for the purpose of extinguishing fires. Until the past few years it was not considered the duty of fire departments to help to *prevent* fires.

Now we have come to realize that with this subject, as with other public problems, *prevention* is of the utmost importance. So in 1912 firemen began to inspect the buildings of the city. In 1915 this work was regularly organized, and in the first six months of 1915, 28,118 regular inspections were made in addi-

tion to 10,790 inspections as a result of reports from the Chamber of Commerce "Clean-up and Paint-up" campaign. If these inspections are continued at their present (1915) standard for a few years, it is believed that they will contribute materially to a permanent reduction in the fire waste of Cincinnati.

High Pressure Water System.—The construction of tall buildings in the business districts has made the fire protection furnished by fire engines inadequate. So the most recent improvement contemplated is a high-pressure water system. Water will be supplied at a pressure of from 250 to 300 pounds per square inch, sufficient to reach the tops of tall buildings. It is proposed to construct a separate system of water mains in the down-town streets leading from a high-pressure pumping station to be located perhaps near the Gilbert Avenue viaduct. This will make fire engines unnecessary in the down-town business district, and will more completely protect the city from fire loss. Some of the water mains for this system already have been laid.

Duty of the Public.—The movement for better fire protection should receive the support of all people. Every citizen has the authority to report damages or illegal conditions noted in any building, and he should insist upon prompt and effective corrections of the same. Fire prevention is a personal responsibility on every man, woman, and child. The individual should be informed as to the various causes of fire; and it should be a part of his everyday life to prevent those things which may cause unnecessary and careless destruction of property.

It is most important that buildings be provided with proper exits, and, when needed, with fire escapes, and that all precautions in construction be observed. But after all, most fires are caused by simple carelessness, and are due to the careless acts of commission or omission of some person.

As this is true, so is it important that exits be not obstructed, and that fire escapes and stairways be kept always free from obstruction.

Clean-up and paint-up campaigns, as conducted the past few years, are most valuable factors in removing the causes of fires. Everyone should cooperate in this movement, not only because by so doing he will make his own premises safer, but because at the same time he will but offer wholesome example to others.

We have come to realize that none of us has a right to maintain conditions upon his own premises that endanger the lives and property of his neighbors. The law now recognizes this principle by giving large powers to the State Fire Marshal and the city Fire Department. It is especially important that boys and girls, soon to become men and women, know about the importance of fire protection and their duties in regard to it.

The following outline, originally prepared and published by the Cincinnati Chamber of Commerce several years ago, will be found useful in impressing upon the mind the principal causes of fire and the means of its prevention.

FIRE PREVENTION

A.—The Fire Waste: Its Economic Significance.

Property Burned Is Gone Forever.—A burned city does not replace itself. Fire insurance does not replace lost property.

Food, clothing, and shelter are produced only by human effort, hence labor expended in replacing waste is withdrawn from legitimate human needs.

National waste impoverishes the nation as family waste impoverishes the household.

The fire waste is not really paid for by insurance companies.

Fire insurance is added by manufacturers and merchants to the cost of the goods, and whoever buys a loaf of bread, a hat, a coat, or shoe pays it. The cost of the fire tax is concealed in the price of the goods. Every fire is paid for by all the people. Insurance is collected from all and paid to him who has a fire; hence the man who has a fire intentionally or unintentionally takes money from the pockets of his neighbors. Fire insurance is an assessment upon all to pay to one; hence every fire makes every man's struggle for a living harder by compelling him to spend for his neighbor's waste what he might otherwise spend for his own comfort.

B.—The Fire Waste: Causes and Prevention.

Fires Start From:

Lack of Cleanliness.—Rubbish heaps are fire breeders. Fires start in them and are fed by them. A clean city will have few fires. Attics, closets, and cellars should be kept free from combustible accumulations.

Ashes should be kept only in metal cans, and never carelessly disposed against wooden fences or other combustible surfaces.

Burning trash or autumn leaves are very likely to cause fires when too near buildings.

Smoking.—The careless use of pipes, cigars, and cigarettes causes countless fires.

Smoking in factories, mills, warehouses and shops, stables, garages, etc., should be absolutely prohibited.

Sawdust should never be used in cuspidors.

Matches.—The match is designed to start fires, and it does. A single match may cause the burning of a city. Most fires are of the same size when they start.

A thoughtful husband or father will have no matches in his home except those which light only on the box. Such matches if accidentally dropped or secured by young children cannot be ignited on any ordinary surface. Hundreds of children are burned to death every year playing with the "strike anywhere" match. Children should never be permitted to play with matches.

No match which can accidentally ignite under foot or be ignited by rats or mice should be allowed in the home, store, or factory. Matches should never be thrown away while lighted.

Lighting Devices.—Defective electric wiring: All wiring should be done by competent electricians only, and inspected before current is turned on. Electric light bulbs should never be covered by cloth or paper shades or decorations.

Exposed gas jets: Curtains and draperies may be blown against gas jets by draughts from open windows. Adjustable gas brackets should be guarded by stops and the flame enclosed by wire globes.

Kerosene lamps: These should be kept scrupulously clean and should never be filled after dark. Private gasoline vapor or acetylene lighting plants should be frequently inspected and kept in strict conformance with safety requirements.

Candles: These should never be taken into closets or other places where they may ignite inflammable materials.

Heating.—Defective chimneys and flues: Public authorities should certify to the proper chimney construction of every house. Builders can easily cover up dishonest intent or criminal negligence in chimney building.

Neglected furnaces: Fires should never be relighted until the furnace is overhauled. Pipes rust during the summer and may deliver sparks to the cellar. Smoke pipes should be taken down in the spring, as the passage of moist air through them rusts them rapidly.

Overheated stoves: Stoves often get red-hot when filled with fuel and left with drafts open. Clothes hung close to dry, or other nearby materials, are easily ignited. A stove is a receptacle for fire and should not be neglected.

Gas, gasoline, and oil stoves: These should be kept scrupulously clean and free from leaks. Rubber hose should never be used connected to gas stoves. Gasoline stoves should be filled in daylight only, and never while burning.

Explosives: Gases and Oils.—The commercial storage, handling, and the use of explosives, inflammable substances, and combustibles should be regulated by public authority in the interest of the common safety.

Gasoline, naphtha, and similar volatiles for domestic cleaning should be used always in the open air where possible, and by daylight only, and never near any open flame.

Oily rags or waste, used in furniture polishing or any sort of cleaning, should be burned at once after using, as certain oils ignite spontaneously.

Holiday Causes.—Fourth of July fireworks should be abolished, and an Independence Day with sane and interesting civic exercises substituted.

Flimsy inflammable Christmas decorations, cotton as a substitute for snow, and all similar fire-breeding materials should be discarded. Better and safer things can easily be found.

Carelessness.—The European peoples, reading of our stupendous fire waste, are puzzled to know if we are a nation of incendiaries or a nation of children playing with matches. We are neither, but we are very careless, and our careless habits must be corrected.

Individual responsibility for fire must be emphasized by fire inquests held by fire marshals in all the States. In France, he who has a fire must pay any loss resulting from it to his neighbors.

Fire prevention is as important as fire extinguishment. Fire departments should prevent fires as well as extinguish them.

All fire departments should make regular inspections, keeping cities free of rubbish and other fire-breeding dangers.

Everyone should cooperate heartily with clean-up and paint-up campaigns.

State building codes should eventually regulate all building construction, so that many careless habits in building may be eliminated and proper attention given to the fire hazard in homes, shops, mills, and factories.

FIRES ARE SPREAD BY:

Wooden Construction.—American towns and cities are built largely of wood. Foreign cities are not.

Conflagrations are unavoidable where wooden buildings are erected in close proximity. Wind-driven fires spread rapidly. Conflagrations are never extinguished with water. They burn themselves out if not stopped by fire walls or incombustible barriers of some sort. As long as the American people build of wood, our fire tax will be a heavy economic burden and handicap to the general prosperity.

Combustible Roofs.—Wooden shingles are the principal American conflagration breeders. When dry, they ignite like tinder when flying brands or sparks alight upon them. Once a shingle roof is on fire, the draught of the flames tears off the light shingles and carries them to other roofs, to be ignited in turn, and in their turn to furnish new flying brands.

All roof coverings should be incombustible, or at least slow-burning. The use of wooden shingles should be entirely abandoned, as they multiply the fire danger of the wooden house.

Unprotected Window Openings.—Conflagrations in brick, stone, and concrete sections of cities are only possible because of unprotected window openings. A stone or concrete building is itself a fire wall if fire can be kept out of it.

Any city not built of wood can abolish its conflagration dangers by replacing its wooden window frames and thin glass by metal window frames and wired glass, or equipping the same with standard fire shutters. Any good fire department can then extinguish a fire in the building in which it originates. An unusually hot fire might burn out of one building into the next, but a conflagration could not get started.

It is the frequent conflagrations in the business districts where the commercial values are greatest (and where they

might easily be guarded as above suggested) which makes the fire tax in the United States so enormous.

Instructions How To Turn In An Alarm Of Fire From The Street Fire Alarm Boxes Of Cincinnati:

1. Break the glass front of the key-holding box.
2. Turn the key and open the door of the fire alarm box.
3. Pull down the hook in the front of the box once to the bottom of the slot and release the hook.
4. You will then hear the small signal bell in the box striking the number of the box.
5. Then close the outside door of the box and remain. When the first fire company arrives, direct it to the location of the fire.

Every member of every family should know the location of the nearest fire alarm box. Wherever possible it is better to send in a call by street alarm boxes than by telephone, as it is easy to make a mistake in speaking under such conditions, and the fire engine may be sent to the wrong district or street. But if a fire alarm is sent by telephone the important things to remember are: To ask for "Fire Tower;" to keep cool; speak distinctly, and to remain at the telephone until the man at the fire tower is through talking.

CHAPTER IX

The Commissioner of Buildings and His Work

Twenty-five years ago a man in Cincinnati could build a house, church, theater, factory, or any other kind of building in almost any manner he desired. Few local building laws had been passed to prevent his erecting unsafe or unsanitary structures. As an actual fact, in Cincinnati, as in other cities during that period, many buildings were erected that proved dangerous to life and limb, and in some cases veritable fire traps.

The growth of the realization that no one lives independently of his neighbor, and that all should conform their acts to what is for the public good, together with the many accidents caused through the ignorance and thoughtlessness of builders, brought about the general adoption of local ordinances and of certain state laws intended to safeguard the public against imperfect and unsafe building structures.

These laws are known as the state and city building codes. They have been revised several times to keep pace with the various improvements in building materials and practice that are continually being developed.

Duties of the Commissioner of Buildings. To enforce these building laws it is necessary to have properly appointed officers to represent the state and city. They are known as commissioners of buildings. It is their duty to see that the building laws are properly observed.

Complete drawings and specifications for every new building, as well as for any proposed changes upon existing structures, must be submitted to the Commissioner of Buildings for careful examination. This is to enable him to see that the foundations, walls, piers, columns, girders, beams, floor systems, etc., are of proper materials and dimensions to support with perfect safety the weights and strains that will come upon them; that the proper number of exits and stairways are provided

for; that the drain pipes and plumbing fixtures conform to the requirements; and that the proper arrangements are provided to ventilate the structure. The Commissioner of Buildings must see that the plans conform to these requirements before he approves the plans and issues the necessary building permit. His duty is to see that the structure is built in accordance with the approved drawings and details.

Plans and specifications for all public buildings must be submitted to the State Building Commissioner for approval, in addition to being submitted to the local Commissioner of Buildings.

The Building Code. The building code thus determines in detail the construction of buildings in so far as safety and sanitary conditions are concerned. It classifies buildings and determines the construction that must be used in the various classifications. It regulates the use of roadways and sidewalks where buildings are under construction or undergoing repairs. It determines the character and quality of brick, sand, lime, cement, concrete, timber, iron, and all other material used in the construction of buildings.

The building code further specifies that all public buildings, detention buildings, public garages, dry cleaning establishments, all school buildings, and buildings three or more stories in height containing assembly halls, all office buildings, hotels, lodging houses, tenement houses more than five stories in height, store houses, warehouses, and factory buildings seven stories or more in height, and theaters hereafter erected shall be fire-proof.

It establishes certain block restrictions. For example: No gas reservoir, blacksmith shop, foundry, packing house, soap factory, tannery, brewery, distillery, grain elevator, laundry, or any building, tipple or other structure for the storage of gasoline with a capacity exceeding 1,000 gallons shall be erected in any residence block or residence square.

It prohibits certain hazards, such as keeping or handling fireworks, celluloid material, gasoline, storing feed, hay, straw, paper, feathers, rags, or any object injurious to health in tenement houses, lodging houses, hotels, office buildings, and buildings containing assembly halls or theaters.

Of special interest to every householder are the specifications relating to fire prevention and sanitary conditions. No kitchen range, coal range, or stove in any building shall be

placed less than six inches from any unprotected woodwork or wood-stud partition. All coal stoves and ranges shall be set upon metal, brick, tile, or cement or other approved incombustible material extending at least one foot in front of the stove or range. All gas ranges having an air space of at least six inches underneath the stove may be set directly on a wood floor. All gas stoves and heaters of any kind must have flue connections. No gas stove, gas range, or gas heater shall be connected by rubber hose connections.

All elevators hereafter placed in any building must be enclosed with walls of incombustible material. Inspection of all elevators is made at least every six months, and if these are found safe, certificates are issued, as provided for.

All public buildings and places of amusement must be provided with doors that open outward. All aisles must be kept clear.

The building code provides for proper light and air of all buildings hereafter constructed. For example: The window space of every room used for residential purposes must equal not less than one-tenth of the area of the floor space.

In every tenement house, every living or sleeping room must have a clear height of every part of the same at least 7 feet 6 inches in existing houses, and 8 feet in houses hereafter erected. No room in any tenement house shall be so overcrowded that there shall be afforded less than 400 cubic feet of air to each adult and 200 cubic feet of air to each child under twelve years of age.

The building code also establishes and determines proper toilets and the cleanliness of buildings. It compels the owners of buildings to make proper sewerage connections.

The construction of buildings is watched to see that they conform to the plans as approved by the Commissioner of Buildings.

To carry out his duties the commissioner is provided with an office force and with inspectors and deputies, who by law have the right to enter any building or enclosure within the city. Special inspectors are provided to see that tenements conform to the law, in order that those who live in them, as far as possible, shall be made safe from fire, and be provided with light and air and sanitary surroundings.

CHAPTER X

Dependency and Delinquency

Causes of Poverty.—The causes of poverty are numerous and complicated; but they divide themselves into two groups: peculiarities in the individual, and unfavorable condition of environment.

Certain characteristics, such as lack of judgment, extravagance, indolence, unhealthy appetites, and disease, produce habits of shiftlessness, disregard of family ties, and excessive use of stimulants—habits which tend to cause and maintain a state of poverty

Conditions of environment which interfere with self-support are: Poor housing, bad climatic conditions, misdirected or insufficient education, lack of protective legislation, unwise methods of charity, and bad industrial conditions causing sickness, low wages, irregular employment, and, to some extent, unequal distribution of wealth.

Personal characteristics leading to dependency and delinquency are of the utmost importance. Many persons, by improving themselves intellectually and physically, or by preventing or correcting bad habits, in a large measure actually control their environment, and thus secure themselves against dependency and delinquency.

Since poverty and ignorance prevent dependent people from helping themselves, and since their presence is a constant expense and menace to the community, each citizen should strive to free the community of those causes that produce disease, poverty, and social degeneration.

Dependents may be divided into two classes: Those permanently disabled through age or certain abnormal physical or mental conditions; and those temporarily forced into dependency by some cause that may be removed. All relief in cases of the latter class should aim to remove the disability, and to restore to a condition where normal self-support is possible.

Methods of Charity.—The old method of dispensing charity was to give alms—simply to afford temporary relief of some sort. But we have come to realize that this method did not tend to correct the unsatisfactory conditions which produced dependency. On the other hand, it actually increased the helplessness of the dependent, and made more certain the further calls for alms.

The new way is rather to correct the conditions which have caused dependency, so that those who must be given relief are enabled to take care of themselves and their families, and no longer remain public charges.

The new scheme of philanthropy is distinctly constructive. It takes the view that while care of those already dependent is important, it is even more important to do away with the causes of dependency.

A system of organized charity is necessary, since private individuals have neither the time nor special training to investigate and properly care for applicants for relief. A thorough investigation of each case and the cause of distress, such as only a trained worker can make, should precede all relief. Cincinnati has a number of such organizations, both public and private.

Philanthropic Organizations.—*The Department of Public Welfare* is the public department which handles cases of dependency in Cincinnati. "It provides material relief for families of needy poor where the bread-winner is in a city institution; it also provides free transportation and burial, and investigates applications for charity licenses and paroles from the workhouse. It has charge of the following city institutions: Infirmary, House of Refuge, Opportunity Farms, Workhouse, Lodging House, City Hospital, Tuberculosis Hospital." The department also conducts a hospital social service and cooperates with the other philanthropic institutions.

The State-City Free Labor Exchange, located in the city hall, is supported jointly by the state and the municipality. It serves as a clearing house for the distribution of labor, receiving applicants for labor of all kinds. It always aims to send the man or woman best fitted for the work, giving preference to those most in need; and fills positions without charge, either to employer or employee. It was of especially great service to the city during the season of unemployment in 1914-1915, brought about by the European War.

The Council of Social Agencies is a federation of the charitable, civic, philanthropic, and public agencies of Greater Cincinnati. Its purpose is to promote efficiency in the social work of Cincinnati and vicinity by securing cooperation and co-ordination, and by applying efficiency tests. The men and women of the executive board have established certain standards of efficient organization and work for agencies soliciting support from Cincinnati givers. Agencies are required to meet these standards before receiving public endorsement from the Council of Social Agencies for such support from the community. A confidential exchange is kept of names and addresses of individuals and families who have been helped by reporting agencies. Through this exchange it was found that some persons were receiving help from several agencies at the same time. A social service directory is published by the Council as a reference book of all benevolent and civic resources of the community.

The Council initiated the movement that resulted in the establishment of our Court of Domestic Relations, an unique institution of great value, with exclusive jurisdiction over cases of juvenile dependency and delinquency, and divorce and alimony.

The Council now directs the collection of a common budget for a score or more of philanthropic institutions. In this way the giver makes a single donation for all the institutions to which he contributes. By this method the cost of securing funds is decreased from about 15 per cent to about 5 per cent.

The Associated Charities was first organized in this city in 1879. In the fiscal year ending August 31, 1915, 7,718 cases were given attention. The Associated Charities affords relief to the needy; it operates a work-room for women and a labor yard for men. It has a visiting housekeeper, and through various agencies conducts educational and social service. This includes family visiting, procuring relief from relatives, churches, or institutions, procuring medical care, finding employment, improving sanitary and moral surroundings by persuasion or reporting to city authorities.

The United Jewish Charities, a federation of nine constituent bodies, is an organization which deals with the problem created by large numbers of Jewish immigrants in the city. It conducts a Jewish Foster Home, a Kindergarten Association, a Trade

School for Girls and Industrial School for Boys, a Jewish Settlement, and a Dispensary. It supports a social center, which conducts a boys' play-room, a civic club, and a class where English is taught. This is one of the most successful philanthropic organizations in the country.

The Salvation Army is both a religious and relief organization. It gives general relief to the needy poor, without regard to their religious belief. Free dinners are given on Thanksgiving and Christmas.

The St. Vincent DePaul Society is a charitable organization of the Roman Catholic Church. Through its branches in the various parishes, it gives relief to needy poor of the Roman Catholic Church.

The Union Bethel Social Settlement is located at 501 East Third Street. Its plan for constructive social work is carried out through clubs, classes, and neighborly visiting. Connected with the institution is a medical department, which averages 1,000 treatments a month. The Union Bethel also has a vacation house at New Richmond, a day nursery, and a lodging house which is self-supporting.

The Children's Home, Cincinnati Orphan Asylum, Bethany Home, German Protestant Orphan Asylum, Jewish Foster Home, and *St. Joseph Orphan Asylum* are some of the child-caring institutions for the placing of homeless and destitute ones who have been committed to them in good homes or affording temporary homes to children whose parents may later be able to support them.

Prevention of Crime.—Conditions that develop pauperism and make charity necessary produce delinquency and crime. "Crime, in the last analysis, is not to be overcome after arrest, but before. Schools, churches, playgrounds, settlements, trade-unions, and charitable societies—agencies of social progress and social reform, public and private—are the handmaidens of the new penology."*

The Court of Domestic Relations exists for the protection of the family and the interests of children. It watches over children and acts as their champion against vicious and unscrupulous persons who would corrupt their morals, ruin their health, and deprive them of the required amount of schooling. "This Court's aim is to keep children in normal homes if pos-

* Edward T. Devine in "The Survey," January 21, 1911.

sible, by forcing fathers to support them, by granting pensions to widowed mothers, or by preventing needless divorces through the readjustment of family relations." Cases handled by the court are all those relating to delinquency; i. e., where children have broken the laws of city or state; cases of dependent children; i. e., children without proper parental care or guardianship; divorce cases, cases of failure to provide, and alimony cases.

The City Workhouse, the *Ohio Penitentiary*, and *Mansfield Reformatory*, for male criminals between the ages of 16 and 30, and *Marysville Reformatory*, a place of detention for females over 16 years of age, are the correctional institutions which receive adult offenders from Cincinnati's courts.

Mansfield Reformatory, *Lancaster Industrial School* for boys, and *Delaware Industrial School* for girls, are the state institutions to which the court commits delinquent boys and girls.

The House of Refuge, established in 1850, was long a city institution. In 1912 it underwent a complete reorganization. Formerly it cared for both dependent and delinquent children. Thus the good were thrown into contact with the bad; a system of military drill was maintained; the sleeping rooms had barred windows; schools were maintained on the premises.

In 1912 the children were sent to public schools, receiving manual training as well as academic instruction. The military system of discipline was discarded and play encouraged. A new record system was established giving complete physical and social history.

Opportunity Farm for Girls, at Wyoming, and an *Opportunity Farm for Boys*, at Glendale, both on the cottage plan, have replaced the old House of Refuge, even the name of which has been discarded.

Outdoor activities upon these farms in the country will promote health and happiness, and will turn the children's minds into normal, healthy channels.

These harbor only delinquent children. The dependents are sent out to live with good families, the city watching carefully to see that their surroundings are good. The city believes, and acts upon the belief, that a boy or girl is better off in a good home, however humble, than in any institution.

The Juvenile Protective Association is an organization for

the advancement of children's welfare. It works in cooperation with the Court of Domestic Relations, the Board of Education, the state factory inspectors, and all other child-helping agencies, "to investigate, suppress, and prevent conditions and to prosecute persons contributing to the dependency, truancy, or delinquency of children." It attempts to create a public sentiment for the establishment of wholesome agencies.

The New Idea.—In former times, criminals were put into prison with the idea of punishing them. The new idea is to treat crime similarly to the method of treating dependency: That is, to prevent by removing the causes, to protect society, and to reform the guilty, instead of only punishing the criminal. Various reform methods in prison management are being introduced, such as industrial and academic instruction, outdoor work, less isolation in cells, and imposing sentences whose length depends on the good behavior of the prisoner. It is generally agreed that environment to a large extent makes the criminal. It is therefore reasonable to suppose that in the right sort of surroundings many of the men now in our prisons and workhouses might become valuable citizens.

Cultural Activities

CHAPTER XI

Education

In a country with a government like ours the responsibility of the citizen for the protection of the life, health, personal rights, property, and business interests of its citizens is greater than under any other form of government. Not a special ruling class, but the people as a whole, are responsible for the community welfare. The fundamental necessity in order to obtain protection to life, property, and commerce is the education of the citizens of the community. The problem of education of both children and adults is therefore, in America, one of the utmost importance as regards community affairs.

Early Private Schools.—The people of Cincinnati early appreciated the need of schools and provided certain educational facilities. But in the early days, that is until 1829, there was no such an institution as a public school. All educational activities were in private hands. Those pupils whose parents did not pay did not receive instruction.

Within the first few years of the city's existence quite a number of private schools were available to the children of the community. The city directory of 1829 records that in that year there were 47 schools, with a total enrollment of 725 girls and 983 boys.

Cincinnati has had two periods of educational advance. The first began with the second decade of the nineteenth century. It was still an era of private schools. The city was then, and until the Civil War continued to be, the center of learning for the West and Southwest. Cincinnati was then the largest city west of the Alleghanies, and deserved to be called the "Queen of the West." Students came from the South, from farther west, and from Ohio and Indiana. It was at this time that such schools as Dr. John Locke's Female Academy, Albert Pickett's Cincinnati Female Institution, Ormsby M. Mitchell's Institution of Science and Languages flourished.

In this period also began professional education in Cincin-

nati. Under the leadership of Dr. Daniel Drake, the Ohio Medical College was established in 1820; in 1828 Lane Theological Seminary was established; in 1833 the Cincinnati Law School became a department of Cincinnati College.

The Cincinnati College was the outgrowth of the Cincinnati Lancaster Seminary, established in 1815 through the efforts of Dr. Daniel Drake and Rev. Joshua L. Wilson. The Lancaster plan used in this institution was to use the older pupils, under the direction of their teachers, as monitors and teachers for the younger children. The school occupied a building erected especially for it on the present site of the Mercantile Library Building, which later replaced the College Building. Lancaster Seminary continued its existence until about 1820, when it gave way to Cincinnati College. The college contained among its directors Judge Jacob Burnet, Oliver M. Spencer, Martin Baum, Dr. Daniel Drake, and General William Henry Harrison. Its faculty included such men as William H. McGuffey, author of the celebrated school readers; Ormsby M. Mitchell, the founder of the Cincinnati Observatory, and E. D. Mansfield, for many years a well-known local journalist.

The Beginning of Public Schools. Under such educational influences as these, Cincinnati's public schools began their existence. The leading spirit in establishing them was Nathaniel Guilford; but closely associated with him were Micajah J. Williams and Samuel Lewis. Williams, the father of internal improvements in Ohio, combined his influence with that of Guilford, with the result that a law was passed in 1828 providing for public schools in Ohio. Acting under the provisions of this law, the city constructed two buildings of brick and stone of two rooms each. One stood on the river bank near the Front Street pumping station, and the other on Sycamore Street, near Fifth. A little later four other buildings were occupied. All were crude structures, utterly inadequate, according to our present ideas.

In the meantime George Graham, one of the city's philanthropic citizens, employed an architect to draw a design of a model schoolhouse. This he built in 1833 on his own lot on the west side of Race between Fourth and Fifth Streets. After its completion, he offered the whole property to Council for the cost of the building. At first they refused to pay the amount; but they finally accepted the building, paying for all except the

cost of the cupola. Nine other schools patterned after this model school were afterwards built at a cost of a little over $96,000. They were of brick, two stories high, and with two rooms on each floor.

These ten schools were controlled by a Board of Trustees composed of one member from each ward. Nathaniel Guilford was the chairman of the first Board of Trustees, no superintendent being employed. Money was then more valuable than now, and teachers' salaries were much lower than to-day. Men received from $300 to $500 per year, and women from $200 to $250. No attempt was made at systematic grading or classification until 1836.

The Beginning of Woodward and Hughes High Schools. It was in this same period that Cincinnati's high schools had their beginning. William Woodward, the founder of Woodward High School, appreciated the lack of education in the West, and, through the influence of his friend, Samuel Lewis, provided for the establishment of the Woodward Free Grammar School for the poor children of Cincinnati. Later he changed the conditions of the gift so as to make it possible for the trustees to establish a high school. The school was opened on October 24, 1831. During its existence it has been called successively Woodward Free Grammar School, Woodward College, and Woodward High School.

Woodward's neighbor, Thomas Hughes, an English shoemaker, emulating his example, bequeathed twenty-seven acres of land, comprising about ten blocks, extending from Schiller Street to Mount Auburn, between Main and Sycamore Streets, for the establishment of a school. The fund thus created was the beginning of Hughes High School.

From this period forward both the public and private schools of Cincinnati ranked high. Then came a time when the public schools of the city were in the hands of the politicians. The schools suffered from lack of funds. For many years not a single new schoolhouse was erected in Cincinnati, while other cities were making great forward strides in educational equipment and methods.

Our Educational Renaissance.—Then came the renaissance. Under the leadership of an able superintendent, seconded by high-class men in the Board of Education, and a large body of earnest teachers, the school system began to improve.

The first effort on the part of the superintendent and teachers was to reorganize the school work so as to make it meet the present-day needs of the community. That work is still going on.

The second part of the program of improvement was the rebuilding of the school plant. Many of the old buildings were inadequate, unsafe, and unsanitary. Some of them were remodeled, some were replaced by handsome new ones, and the needs of the rapidly growing suburbs were met as fast as possible. Within twelve years, thirty buildings were constructed or remodeled at a cost of about $5,750,000. The list includes two new high school buildings, Hughes and Woodward, and a third in Hyde Park, now being erected.

The purpose of this educational program in Cincinnati is to give an education to "all the children of all the people," in order to prepare them for service to the community.

This means the socializing of the entire work of the school; making every teacher a social worker; preparing girls and boys for the work which they are to do after school days are over; preparing them for purposeful cooperation in making the community contribute in the best possible way to the welfare of its members.

Let us examine more in detail the results of this twelve years of effort as shown by present-day conditions and activities.

Kindergartens.—An early evidence of the awakening was the introduction of the kindergarten system into the public schools. This took place in September, 1905. The Board of Education at that time assumed control of two kindergartens which previously had been maintained by private funds. Now there is one for every elementary school.

The kindergartens are organized on the half-day plan for the children, but the teachers are employed all day. They give two afternoons each week to home visiting. The reasons for the home visiting are many. The teacher may thus encourage punctuality and regular attendance; secure cleanliness and proper physical care of the child; discuss with the mother the problems of the child's training; and suggest home occupations for the child.

Elementary Schools.—The curriculum, the school activities, and the school spirit of the elementary schools have all rapidly changed. The course of study formerly was dull and formal. Now it is adaptable to meet the needs of the child. Even at

the close of the twentieth century the work of the teachers was circumscribed by uniform examinations. Progress is now measured by intellectual development and interest in the work, not by the ability of pupils to answer a set of uniform questions sent out from the office of the Superintendent. At that time, teachers taught for results as shown by examinations. Now the idea is far more that of service to the child and the community.

With the change in the school spirit has come an enrichment of the course of study. Emphasis is still placed on the "three R's." Perhaps they are better taught than ever before. But there has come into the school a rich fund of information and experience, adding to the happiness and well-being of the child. While the academic studies for the most part are the same as they were years ago, their character has changed. History is now studied for the purpose of obtaining a better understanding of the institutions of to-day. Geography is no longer an enumeration of rivers, capes, and capitals. English is more an exercise in the use of correct speech than the study of formal grammar. Arithmetic is socialized by connecting it with the practical affairs of life.

The special studies, penmanship, art, music, physical training, which have long been given particular attention in Cincinnati, now have a richer and more practical meaning.

Penmanship is no longer taught for artistic effects, but to produce good legible handwriting for everyday use.

In art work much attention is given to art appreciation as it relates to the home, the shop, the office, and the community.

In music also appreciation is emphasized, while the training in music which our pupils receive has added much to Cincinnati's fame as a musical center.

Physical training no longer stops with formal exercises in the classroom and gymnasium. Out of it has developed interclass and inter-school games which do much toward the development of strong and clean citizens.

Careful attention is given to systematic instruction in hygiene. Medical inspection by competent physicians under the direction of the Department of Health is part of the daily school program. Inspections of teeth and eyes have been introduced. Along with this has come a further development of special schools for the physically defective. Not only are there special

schools for the deaf and for the blind, but now the open-air school has come for the anæmic and for those disposed toward tuberculosis.

Not until 1905, long after other cities were profiting by such instruction, were manual training and domestic science introduced into the Cincinnati schools. Those subjects are now taught in the four upper grades of the elementary schools and in the high schools.

Manual training broadens the outlook of the student, and gives him a fund of useful information and experiences about the affairs of every-day life; it teaches the dignity of labor; it cultivates taste and judgment about material things; it furnishes a means of education especially adapted for those pupils who are distinctly "hand-minded." This work is necessary to well-rounded development. It gives the student a variety of experiences, and helps him to find at an early age the work for which apparently he is best fitted.

Following the introduction of manual training and domestic science, and probably coming directly out of these subjects, has come a differentiation of the courses of study in the seventh and eighth grades for the purpose of meeting the needs of particular groups of pupils.

Much of the work thus added belongs to what has been called "prevocational" work, the purpose of which is to give the pupils, both girls and boys, a variety of both manual and mental experiences by which they may be able to discover the work for which they are best fitted. The courses for girls also prepare definitely for the practice of the household arts. Some of the work in the so-called "opportunity schools" for pupils below the normal grade is of the prevocational type.

In all these prevocational classes, the time allowed for manual work is increased beyond that regularly allotted to manual training and domestic science, and in some schools to as much as five hours per week. The academic work is closely coordinated with the manual training. Various trades and the household arts furnish elements of educational value for the training of the child. The character of the work varies in different schools, and is in no sense trade training.

The High Schools.—The reorganization of our high schools took place in 1910-11, immediately after the completion of the new Hughes High School and Woodward High School build-

ings. Both of these high schools are of the cosmopolitan type. Here within the same walls are students in the general, manual training, domestic science, commercial, industrial, art, music, agricultural, and pharmacy courses. An appreciation of increased high school facilities was shown by a great increase in enrollment which during the past eight years has increased fifteen times as rapidly as the population of the city, and ten times as rapidly as the enrollment of the elementary schools.

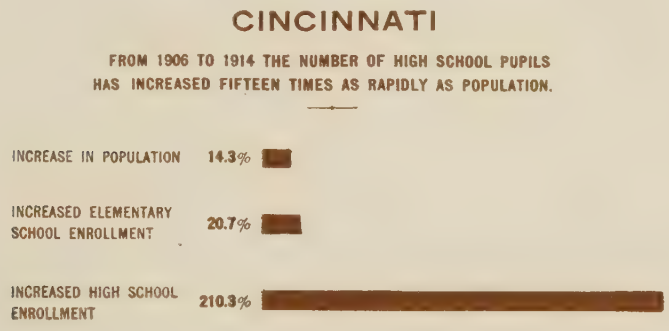

CINCINNATI
FROM 1906 TO 1914 THE NUMBER OF HIGH SCHOOL PUPILS HAS INCREASED FIFTEEN TIMES AS RAPIDLY AS POPULATION.
INCREASE IN POPULATION
14.3%
INCREASED ELEMENTARY SCHOOL ENROLLMENT
20.7%
INCREASED HIGH SCHOOL ENROLLMENT
210.3%
FROM 1906 TO 1914 THE NUMBER OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PUPILS HAS INCREASED ABOUT ONE AND ONE HALF TIMES AS RAPIDLY AS POPULATION.

CHART 6

In 1907 the high school attendance in Cincinnati was about 2,000; in 1915 it was about 4,500, excluding night high schools, in which about 3,000 pupils were enrolled.

The old high schools, the public academies of our fathers, furnished needed mental training and supplied the demands of their time. But for over fifty years the curriculum of our high schools remained practically the same. It offered excellent academic training, furnishing valuable general culture. The courses of study were all determined by the entrance requirements of colleges and universities, although only a very few of the graduates were found to enter higher institutions of learning. "Custom expected our high schools to meet the requirements of the college, but not to prepare for the real and pressing requirements of the daily life of the products." Changed industrial and social conditions and a realization of the real demands of education now require, in addition to the instruction which high schools formerly offered, other opportunities for

education to be presented, if the city would educate "all the children of all the people" to meet the demands which are to be made upon them.

It is now believed, and the high schools are acting on that belief, that it is the business of the high school to furnish both liberal and definite vocational training to the student who knows what he wants to do; and to furnish those who are undecided as to their choice of a vocation with those experiences which will assist them in "finding themselves."

The various high school courses do as much for one class as for the other. For example, to the student who knows that he wants to be a lawyer, a business man, a machinist, or a druggist, the high school affords definite lines of instruction, fitting into and preparing for such occupation. Furthermore, through the technical cooperative courses the work of the school is closely connected with the practical experience of industrial and commercial life.

On the other hand, the student who is as yet undecided as to his choice of a career finds in the general, the manual training, or the domestic science courses those experiences which will assist him in determining what his occupation is to be. As has been well said by a committee of the National Educational Association, to this student "the high school period is the testing time, the time for trying out his different powers, the time for forming life's purposes."

A brief statement in regard to some leading characteristics of the technical courses will be of interest. The commercial course is operated upon the cooperative basis during the second semester of the senior year. The boys' technical cooperative course is, as its name indicates, cooperative in character. During the last two years the students spend alternate weeks in school and in the shop. The girls' technical cooperative course was planned for the girl who expects to earn her own living on leaving high school, and who wants definite help in finding her field of work. The technical music course is offered in order that the high school work may prepare for and supplement the work as conducted in the colleges of music and by private teachers. Through the cooperation of the Agricultural Committee of the Chamber of Commerce, the Hamilton County Experimental Farm, and the Hamilton County farmers, the third and fourth years of the agricultural course will be con-

ducted on the cooperative plan. The boys will work on the farm two entire summers, and also in alternate weeks of the school year from the first of March to the first of December.

It can be seen that the Cincinnati high schools of to-day are of a very different character from the old Hughes and the old Woodward High Schools. It is hoped that the new schools will serve the twentieth century as well as the old served the nineteenth. The old appealed to a limited class; the new aims at universal secondary education. The old was vocational for a few professions; the new aims to be vocational for all classes by offering instruction that has a direct relation to the future occupation of the pupil. The old considered culture as a thing apart from one's work; the new connects cultural training with the vocational. The old did but little to develop habits of

CINCINNATI'S NEWEST HIGH SCHOOL; IN HYDE PARK

service to one's community; the new attempts to make students intelligent in regard to community affairs and to develop habits of helpful cooperation, to the end that good citizenship may result.

Evening Schools.—For the youth who must work and for the adult who lacked the advantages of early education, the evening schools offer important opportunities. The elementary evening schools were first established for boys in 1840, and for girls in 1855. They were discontinued in 1883, and then reorganized in 1892. The evening academic high schools were not reorganized until 1904. In addition to the regular academic work which the evening high schools at first offered, commercial and industrial instruction is now given in the night schools. The work includes courses for girls and women in sewing, dressmaking, millinery, embroidery, cooking; for boys and men, in mechanical and architectural drawing, bench work, cabinet

making, wood-turning, shop mathematics, and machine shop practice. A special carpentry class in house-framing and another for machine shop foremen were organized in 1914.

Some time ago, in certain schools in the center of the city, there was such a demand by foreigners for instruction in English that it became necessary to establish a special school for them. The students in these schools represent fifteen nations.

The broadening of the instruction in the night schools has resulted in great increase in attendance in the past few years.

Continuation Schools.—There are two types of continuation schools in Cincinnati. The first is represented by the compulsory schools, which give youth instruction in language, civics and industrial affairs, trade practice, hygiene, factory sanitation. They help the student to be an intelligent citizen as well as an efficient worker. These schools are attended by boys between the ages of fifteen and sixteen years of age who have not completed the sixth grade. These pupils are "over age;" that is, they are older than the normal for the grade, and are children who, either from sickness or other infirmity, or from slowness of intellect, have failed in promotion several times.

Another type of continuation school is represented by the Machinists' Apprentice School on Ninth Street and the classes in salesmanship conducted by public school teachers in various department stores. These schools furnish technical and business instruction which cannot be obtained in the shop or in the store. They also endeavor to give that social training which will assist the student to a correct understanding of his relations to his fellow workmen, to his employer, and to the community.

The summer academic school was instituted in 1908. It has two purposes: to enable pupils who have failed in one or two subjects to catch up, and to enable unusually bright pupils to skip a grade.

The vacation schools are recreation centers for children who must stay in the city during the summer. They were established by the Board of Education as part of the school system in 1907, and since then have helped thousands whose homes are in closely congested districts. The vacation school is not academic; it does not continue the book work of the regular school. Its curriculum includes such occupations as appeal to the child whose school books are put away for a time, but whose interest

must be kept alive, and who must be kept busy for his own sake.

The Cincinnati home and school garden movement began under the auspices of the Civics Department of the Cincinnati Woman's Club in 1908. It was later taken over by the Board of Education. The object of the garden work is three-fold: to disseminate a knowledge of plant life generally, to encourage the development of the child through contact with living things, and to provide a means of assisting families to secure wholesome food at low cost through the utilization of back yards and vacant lots.

The part taken by the public schools in the control of playgrounds is treated in Chapter XV on Recreation.

Social Centers.—Organized social center work began in Cincinnati in 1913. On March 17 of that year the Superintendent of Schools, in an exhaustive report to the Board of Education, stated as a general principle that "A larger use of the schoolhouse for social, recreational, educational, and civic purposes should be encouraged. The schoolhouse belongs to all the people, and should be open to all the people upon equal terms." Since the adoption of this report, the social center work has rapidly developed under a special director, who devotes to it his entire time.

A recent report says: "Throughout the city, mothers' clubs, improvement associations, and business men's clubs are now using the public schools for evening meetings. Individually organized athletic clubs and gymnasium classes are taking advantage of the school equipment. Wherever a need for evening activity has been expressed, some attempt has been made to satisfy that need. This makes for a simultaneous and extensive development in a number of different communities, rather than for the development of one or two particular neighborhoods at the expense of others not so well equipped."

The report concludes with the statement that "Time will either prove or disprove the value of present methods; but that activity which stands for social, recreational, educational, and civic advantages must surely find a permanent place in the developing plans of the Cincinnati Board of Education."

Vocational Service.—Changed industrial and social conditions of city life not only have made necessary important changes in our system of education, but have compelled the study of

the child labor question and the whole range of vocational life in its relation to the training of youth. Since 1910 the child labor laws of Ohio have offered a peculiar opportunity to study these questions.

In order to take advantage of this opportunity, a Bureau of Vocational Guidance, financed by private funds, was organized. To it has been assigned the function of issuing certificates permitting children to go to work, in order to give it control of the material for research. Since its organization, this bureau has been engaged in making a comprehensive study of the child labor situation, for the purpose of helping to lay the foundation for an adequate program of vocational service. Meanwhile, the bureau has incidentally worked out a method of issuing working certificates, keeping industrial records, and enforcing child labor laws. It has also given out each year statistics with regard to the number, age, school, grade, and kind of school of the children entering industry, and the kind of occupation into which they go, as well as the wages paid them in various occupations.

A more recent activity connected with the Bureau of Vocational Guidance is the work of the Placement Office. The executive secretary of the Placement Office cooperates both with the schools and with the employers. Her endeavor is to keep children in school whenever that is possible; to find part-time employment for children who could then stay in school, but not otherwise; to find full-time employment for those who must leave school; and to follow them up, as far as possible, in their subsequent employment.

The Bureau of Vocational Guidance is performing an important service in caring for the boys and girls who leave school to go to work, and its influence will extend to those in school. But a closer touch, a more personal service in the way of information and counsel in regard to vocational questions for the pupil while in school is needed. In order to render such help, a program of vocational service in the public schools was begun in 1911.

The immediate aim of this work of vocational service is to lead the child to see the relation between the work of the school and vocational success, and thus give him what has been called a "life career motive" for continuing his interest in school. The ultimate purpose is to prevent vocational misfits, and to

promote vocational success. Such work has been called vocational guidance. The phrase "educational guidance for vocational and ethical purposes" better expresses the motive.

The activities connected with it include giving students information in regard to various occupations and the opportunities which each offers, studying the personal characteristics of pupils and their adaptation to various kinds of work, counseling with pupils in regard to school work and life work, the adaptation of school work to the vocational needs of the pupils. This work also includes the use of the various school activities as laboratory exercises to assist the pupil in discovering that work for which he seems best fitted.

In each school there is a committee to consider the vocational problems of children who are about to leave school, to make a study of different occupations, to give information to children in regard to possible occupations, and to consider the adaptation of the school work to their vocational needs. Each local committee cooperates through its chairman directly with the secretary of the Placement Office.

The Civic and Vocational League holds meetings at the Chamber of Commerce

Through the cooperation of the Chamber of Commerce, another important piece of vocational service closely connected with the work of the schools is in progress. At the request of the Superintendent of Schools, the Chamber of Commerce undertook a vocational survey of the leading industries of the city for the purpose of obtaining information on which to base an extensive industrial education, and for use in counseling with students as to the choice of a career.

The surveys of the printing trades and the garment-making industry have been completed. In accordance with the recommendations of these surveys, schools have been established connected with these industries. Other similar studies are contemplated.

Civics.—Vocational service in the elementary schools is closely connected with instruction in civics, both being supervised by the same director. Civics in the elementary schools has come to mean a study of community life for the purpose of

understanding the relations of the individual to the various social groups of which he is a member, and of developing in the pupil habits and traits of good citizenship. Its aims are set forth in a recently issued syllabus:

"To help the child realize that he is a responsible and helpful member of several groups.

"To awaken and stimulate motives that will lead to the establishment of habits of order, cleanliness, cheerful cooperation, sympathetic service, and obedience to law.

"To emphasize the intimate and reciprocal relation between the welfare of the individual and the welfare of the home and society.

"To develop political intelligence and to prepare the young citizen for its exercise."

As a means of developing an interest in civic and vocational affairs and the habit of cooperation for the promotion of community welfare, civic and vocational clubs are organized in the various schools. These clubs are federated into a Civic and Vocational League, which is affiliated with the Cincinnati Chamber of Commerce and the Woman's City Club. The league is controlled by a committee of sponsors appointed by the presidents of those organizations.

The committee of sponsors assists in furnishing speakers for central and local meetings, and in providing for civic and vocational excursions of the various clubs. It is their endeavor in every way possible to assist in bringing the boys and girls of the schools in close touch with the civic and business life of the community.

The University of Cincinnati.—It is due to Charles McMicken that Cincinnati has, in addition to her elementary and secondary schools, a municipal university. From a recent publication describing the Cincinnati schools, to which we are indebted for much of this chapter, we quote the following, relative to the institution made possible by Mr. McMicken's bequest:

> On his death in 1858, he gave to the city of Cincinnati by will almost the whole of his estate valued at about $1,000,000 for the purpose of establishing and maintaining two colleges.
>
> Nearly half the property thus devised was lost by a court decision in 1860; so that for ten years the rev-

enue derived from the estate was applied to its improvement. Finally, as the outcome of efforts to unite various educational interests in Cincinnati, there was passed in 1870 by the General Assembly of Ohio an act under which the University of Cincinnati was established. In 1874 the Academic Department, now called the McMicken College of Liberal Arts, was formally organized by the appointment of three professors and two instructors.

Expansion of this new city college began almost immediately, has continued to the present, and will proceed further and further along every line in which the University can serve the needs of the people. In 1872 the Cincinnati Astronomical Society (founded in 1842) transferred its property to the city to become a part of the University. In 1896, the Medical College of Ohio (founded in 1819) became a part of the University, and, by re-organization and consolidation with the Miami Medical College in 1908, the Ohio Medical College of the University of Cincinnati. Out of a professorship of civil engineering in the College of Liberal Arts there has developed a College of Engineering, which received its name in 1900, and was organized into a distinct department in 1904. The College for Teachers was organized in 1905 in co-operation with the city Board of Education. In 1906 the Graduate School was separated from the College of Liberal Arts, and given distinct organization. The College of Commerce and the evening academic classes of the College of Liberal Arts were organized in 1912. A Bureau of City Tests was established in 1912 in the College of Engineering to cooperate with the engineer's office of the city department of public service. In 1913 the Municipal Reference Bureau in the City Hall was opened as a department of the University under the direction of the Professor of Political Science. The School of Household Arts was organized in 1914. For a number of years professors and instructors of the College of Liberal Arts had been conducting external courses at various stations in and outside of the city. And, in order to facilitate the study of law, theology, and art, special cooperative arrangements are enforced between the University and the Law School, Lane Theological Seminary, Hebrew Union College, and the Art Academy of Cincinnati.

Today the University of Cincinnati stands as the only fully organized municipal university in America. On the hill of Clifton Heights may be seen the Thirtieth

District School, Hughes High School, and the main group of University buildings, concretely presenting the striking fact that in Cincinnati free instruction from the kindergarten through the graduate school of the University is offered to all the children and youth of the community.

Perhaps this distinctive message of the University of Cincinnati has gone abroad in recent years chiefly from the College of Engineering. The College of Engineering is noted principally for its cooperative courses, which were inaugurated in September, 1906. Instruction is offered in the five lines of civil engineering, chemical engineering, electrical engineering, mechanical engineering, and metallurgical engineering. The Cincinnati plan of engineering education has as its essential feature the ingenious and highly effective co-ordination of actual shop and field work in the various lines of practical engineering with carefully organized university instruction. Students are handled in pairs, the members of each pair alternating so that one student is at work while the other attends college classes, the exchange of students occurring bi-weekly. In this way the practice of engineering is taught in the shop or on a railroad, under actual commercial conditions, and the science underlying the practice is taught in the University.

The College for Teachers, both in its establishment and in its operation, is only another example of the Cincinnati cooperation. Organized in 1905, as a cooperative enterprise conducted jointly by the University and the Cincinnati Board of Education, this unique city normal training college is developing teachers of very high attainments; and, since the establishment of this school, Cincinnati has been able to set up a standard for elementary teachers that is unequaled elsewhere.

The College of Medicine is not only an integral part of the University, but it also is organically related to the great new Cincinnati Hospital, which is one of the most thoroughly equipped general hospitals in the United States, one of the most complete institutions of its kind to be found in the world. Furthermore, a high grade school of nursing and health is being developed by means of cooperative arrangement between the College of Medicine and the Cincinnati Hospital on the one side and on the other the School of Household Arts of the University. In addition, the

College of Medicine and the Cincinnati Board of Health have entered into a cooperative agreement under which students in the junior year divide their time between regular work in the College and active service in the Board of Health.

The College of Commerce of the University of Cincinnati was largely the outgrowth of evening classes held at the University under the patronage of the Cincinnati Chapter of the American Institute of Banking. The idea prompting its establishment was that in the professions, as in business, a man should begin by learning what the experiences of others had to teach. So far, the work of the College of Commerce is conducted mostly through evening classes. The courses of instruction include administration, accounting, and commercial law.

Administration.—This brief review of the functions of the Cincinnati school system indicates that it is unique in its inclusiveness, and that the people of the city control the entire organization from the kindergarten through the graduate school of the University. Although the entire system forms an organic whole, each part, Elementary, High School, and University, has an independent governing body. The members of these governing bodies serve without pay.

The elementary schools are administered by the Board of Education, consisting of seven members elected at large for a term of four years.

The administration of the schools is organized into two principal departments: the Department of Instruction and the Department of Business.

The Superintendent at the head of the Department of Instruction has the appointment, subject to the approval of the Board of Education, of the teachers, the supervising staff, and other officers and employees who come under his direction.

Cooperating with the Department of Instruction, but under the direction of the City Health Department, there are assigned to the schools medical inspectors, district physicians, school nurses, dental operators, and clinic assistants.

The Business Manager at the head of the Department of Business is charged with the erection, repair, and care of all school buildings, and with the purchase and distribution of supplies and materials of all kinds.

The high schools are under the control of the Union Board

of High Schools. This board, consisting of fourteen members, includes the seven members of the Board of Education, five members appointed by the Court of Common Pleas as trustees of the Woodward Fund, and two members elected by the trustees of the Hughes Fund. A contract made in 1851, and amended in 1895, gives to the representatives of the two trust funds a share in the management of the high schools; and in return insures to the city an income of approximately $11,500 per year. All other expenses for the maintenance of the high schools amounting to over $300,000 each year are met by appropriations made by the Board of Education. The Superintendent of Schools, the Business Manager, and the Clerk are all elected by the Board of Education. They are also the administrative officers of the Union Board of High Schools.

Organic connection between the Board of Education and directors of the University is maintained through the medium of the College for Teachers, a joint enterprise, which is managed by a Committee-in-Charge. This committee consists of the Superintendent of Schools, the President of the University, one member of the Board of Education, and one member of the Board of Directors of the University.

From the foregoing account it may be seen that the coordination of educational effort is due, not to a single unifying executive, but to the cooperation of independent authorities, all working together for the common good, and all responsible in the final analysis to the people of the city, whose work they are doing.

Parochial Schools.—Roman Catholics and Lutherans endeavor to give children a good common school education, with special attention to reading, writing, arithmetic, and grammar, and particularly to religious instruction. Aside from the moral value of this instruction in church precepts, it is a common opinion of Roman Catholic educators that as a means of developing the intellectual powers, the study of catechism ranks high. The grades in the parochial schools are ordinarily eight. Five or six of these schools have kindergartens. One, the St. Xavier school, has a day nursery. A few schools have full high school courses. In Cincinnati and suburbs there are 70 parochial schools, employing the services of about 500 teachers, and attended by about 19,000 children.

The Roman Catholics have a well-equipped college, St. Xavier's, with about 1,000 students.

Private Schools.—Perhaps the best known of the private schools of the city is the *Ohio Mechanics' Institute*, one of the first in the United States. It was chartered in 1829, to advance "the best interests of the mechanics, manufacturers, and artisans by the more general diffusion of useful knowledge in those important classes of the community." From the beginning, its purpose has been to furnish an opportunity for acquaintance with the scientific principles on which the mechanical arts are based. Throughout its entire existence in both day and night classes it has done much to promote the cause of education and industrial development.

The original Ohio Mechanics' Institute building at Sixth and Vine Streets was the home of the Institute for more than sixty years, the corner-stone having been laid on July 4, 1848 by the citizens of Cincinnati under the leadership of Miles Greenwood. This historic landmark is known as the Miles Greenwood Building.

The present building site at Canal and Walnut, where Mr. Greenwood carried on his extensive business, was acquired by the trustees in 1905. The handsome building is the generous gift of Mrs. Mary M. Emery. It was provided by her as a memorial to her husband, Thomas J. Emery, and has been occupied since the beginning of the school year of 1911-1912.

The *Cincinnati Kindergarten Training School* was established in 1880. In 1905 it became affiliated with the University of Cincinnati and the public schools, thereby securing the educational opportunities of a large university and the practice field of the public school kindergartens.

The *Colored Industrial School* was established under the bequest of Mrs. Sallie J. McCall, who left the bulk of her fortune to found an industrial school for the benefit of the colored people of Cincinnati, without regard to age or sex, and without charge for tuition. Courses are open to all colored residents of Cincinnati above the age of fourteen years who have completed the fifth school grade or its equivalent. Courses for men and boys are now offered in automobiling, bricklaying, carpentry, cement work, and plastering; for women and girls in domestic science, including cooking, catering, serving, home

sanitation, and housekeeping; and domestic art, including plain sewing, millinery, and dressmaking.

The *Young Men's Christian Association* conducts both day and night classes in many lines of educational work. Emphasis is strongly laid on individual instruction. A large proportion of the Association's educational activities is distinctly vocational. It includes educational talks in shops and factories, trips for men and boys to manufacturing and power plants, and special educational exhibits. It has large gymnasium classes, and carries on special classes for automobile work. An employment bureau is conducted for finding positions for the members generally, and for placing those students who complete the courses satisfactorily.

The *professional schools* include the Eclectic Medical College, Ohio College of Dental Surgery, Cincinnati Law School, Lane Theological Seminary, Hebrew Union College, College of Music, and the Conservatory of Music.

On College Hill is the Ohio Military Institute, a private undertaking developed from the old Ohio Farmers' College. It furnishes academic and military training. Other private schools are the University School, Franklin School for Boys, Oakhurst, Bartholomew-Clifton Schools for girls, various schools of expression or elocution, and business schools.

From this brief review of the educational activities of Cincinnati, it would appear that our city, "with well-defined purpose, is seeking, through the cooperation of all its institutions—social, civic, commercial, industrial, educational—to develop a unified system of public education that shall adequately meet the needs of all its people."

CHAPTER XII

The Public Library

History.—Attempts to establish a library in Cincinnati were made in 1802, but the "Circulating Library" was not opened until April, 1814. In 1821 the "Apprentices' Library" was formed. The two libraries were consolidated in 1837. They had no funds except from donations and fines, and no fixed location until 1852, when the books were placed in the Ohio Mechanics' Institute, at Sixth and Vine Streets. In 1853 a law was passed providing for a tax for school libraries. In 1855 the "Ohio School Library" was opened. In 1856 it was merged with other collections. A tax was not levied regularly until 1867, when the name "Public Library of Cincinnati" was adopted. In 1870 the library moved to its present building on Vine Street, between Sixth and Seventh, a building planned for a theater. The library was controlled by the Board of Education until 1898, when, by a new law, the library was made free to all residents of Hamilton County. The Library Trustees were given full control.

Resources.—The main library contains what is probably the most valuable collection of books in any public library west of the Alleghenies. In the Art Rooms are books on art, architecture and costumes, pictures, stereoscopic views, lantern slides, and musical scores; in the Useful Arts Room, scientific books and magazines, especially those on electricity, chemistry, and all lines of manufacture; in the Study Room, encyclopedias, atlases, law books, volumes of quotations and other reference books, in which can be found answers to questions on a great variety of subjects; in the Civics Room, books and clippings on social topics; in the Children's Room are to be found the best books for boys and girls of all ages, good stories and books to help with school work, home duties, and sports. An adjoining room is for teachers, where there are model collections of books for class-room libraries and the courses of study used in the schools of the principal cities of the United States.

Agencies for Distributing Books.—The main library is not only a storehouse for books, but forms also a distributing center. For the convenience of those who do not live near the main building, there are twenty-two branch libraries in the city and suburban towns. These have regular deliveries from the main library, so that a borrower may secure books not kept in the branch library. To serve people in small communities where there are no branch libraries, there are twenty stations. The library also sends traveling libraries, which are sets of books in cases, to distant parts of the county, where volunteers act as librarians.

(Courtesy of Felix J. Koch.)

CHILDREN'S ROOM; PUBLIC LIBRARY

Methods.—Such a library is a great storehouse of information on almost every conceivable subject. But, in preparing club programs or assigning class-room work to pupils, it should be remembered that there are many subjects on which no information exists in books. Much of this information is fugitive in character, issued by publishing houses, societies, and national, state, and city governments, in the form of pamphlets, reports, and documents. Much of the latest information is contained in periodicals.

Forty years ago a librarian in chief was a walking encyclopedia or index. People went to him for help. One of these old-time librarians could carry in his head a general idea of the contents of one hundred thousand volumes. The increase in number of books containing the records of modern progress has outstripped the powers of any one human brain. The old-style librarian no longer exists. In his place a large library has a corps of trained assistants, each familiar with the tools for

digging out from books information in some one department of knowledge. These tools did not exist forty years ago. Necessity has forced their creation. They are indexes and compilations so many in number that publishing houses have been established with the sole purpose of issuing them. There are more than two thousand of these. The catalogue is only one of these two thousand keys for unlocking the library storehouse.

The principal work of the Public Library of Cincinnati is this reference work, as it is called. Manufacturers, lawyers, chemists, clergymen, teachers, members of debating clubs, and women's clubs are all helped. The aid given the local industries through the files of the technical books and magazines perhaps alone repays the total cost of the Library. Frequently, for scientific researches, it is necessary to draw upon other large libraries. This modern system of inter-library loans adds enormously to local library resources, and saves expense. It is only available for aiding researches likely to advance knowledge. It is not available for school or club work. The expectant student should go to the Public Library, tell exactly what information he is seeking, and leave it to the trained assistants to find it. They prepare and communicate the needed information.

The Library also is giving instruction to teachers and pupils, so that they may have some glimpse into the organization of a modern library, and so be able to help themselves. The Library further conducts an apprentice class for training young people to become themselves librarians.

Free lecture courses are given periodically on popular subjects for adults, some of them in foreign languages. Most of these are illustrated by the stereopticon.

The collection of lantern slides is by far the largest in any public library. The staff photographer is constantly making more slides to satisfy demands.

Story hours are conducted for children at the main library and the branches, where stories are told with a view to interesting children in the best literature.

The Blind.—The Cincinnati Library Society for the Blind circulates its books in embossed type through the Public Library. A number of readings are given for the blind each week at the Library; and every Friday morning a class of blind people receives instruction in various branches, which helps them to become self-supporting.

CHAPTER XIII

Art

In making a trip down the Ohio River one seems naturally to try to picture the glorious scene that met the eyes of the early explorers. The beautiful wooded hills with the majestic river flowing gracefully between them profoundly stirred the emotion of these first white men, and they named the picturesque stream "La Belle Riviere;" in English, "The Beautiful River."

All the Ohio is beautiful, but especially so is the site upon which our city is built. Who can stand on the summit of one of these hills, viewing the beautiful panorama spread at his feet, and not be thrilled with the wonder of it all? So felt the early pioneers; and those returning to the East carried such tales of the wondrous beauty of Cincinnati's location that artists were eager to see the new paradise. When they came, they were not disappointed, but rather were so enraptured that they remained to gain new inspiration from the scenes about them. So, simultaneously with the growth of the commercial life of the city, its artistic spirit was also developed.

As early as 1826 a private studio was opened on Main Street, between Third and Fourth Streets, and designated the "Academy of Fine Arts." Here no less an artistic genius than Hiram Powers, the sculptor, received his first training.

Since strength is gained from organized effort, in 1838 a number of artists formed an association whose chief purpose was the exhibition of art works. In the following year the association exhibited in Cincinnati one hundred and fifty works of foreign and native artists.

The Art Museum.—As American women are usually in the forefront of all progressive movements, in the artistic development of our city they have been among the prime movers. The establishment of the Art Museum had its beginning in their efforts for the "Women's Art Commission of Cincinnati." This met in 1877, adopted resolutions "to advance women's work,

more especially in industrial art;" and later the women's commission adopted resolutions to encourage the cultivation and appreciation of art by the establishment of an art museum.

This museum was made possible by the offer of Charles W. West at the opening of the industrial exposition in 1880, of the sum of $150,000, on condition that other citizens contribute a like amount. Within thirty days $166,500 was contributed. In 1886 the museum was dedicated. Two additions have since been built. In 1907 was built the Emma Louise Schmidlapp Memorial, considered one of the finest sculpture galleries in

THE ART MUSEUM; AN UNUSUAL VIEW

America. In 1910 the Costume and the North Picture Galleries were added to the Cincinnati Art Museum.

The museum collections consist not only of copies of classic and modern examples of sculpture and paintings, but are rich also in textiles, ceramics, metal work, carvings, costumes, arms and armor, musical instruments, and other art productions.

The city is further enriched by several private art collections also well known to connoisseurs.

Cincinnati has the distinction of having the first endowed art academy in America. This was given through the generosity of Charles McMicken, who, in 1869, endowed the McMicken School of Design, affording instruction in drawing, painting, and modeling. The school was maintained on the fourth floor of the old Mercantile Library Building, on Fourth and Walnut Streets. It was maintained as a department of the University

of Cincinnati until 1884, when it was taken over by the Art Museum Association. In 1887 it was housed in its own building in Eden Park, close to the Art Museum.

Cincinnati Artists.—The Art Academy has sent out many artists of no mean ability, whose works have spread the fame of Cincinnati throughout Europe and America. Among these may be mentioned Frank Duveneck, who has but recently had high honors conferred upon him at the Panama-Pacific Exposition; John Twachtman, Robert Blum, Joseph DeCamp, L. H. Meakin, Kenyon Cox, J. Baer, Theodore Wendel, Bryson Burroughs, and Elizabeth Nourse, the latter being at this time perhaps the best known American artist residing in Paris. Among the sculptors may be named Solon Borglum, Charles Niehaus, and C. J. Barnhorn. Others who have added to the art reputation of the city are: Hiram Powers, the first American sculptor to gain European fame; Henry Mosler, C. T. Webber, Thomas Noble, for many years at the head of the teaching force of the Art Academy; Henry Farny, and J. H. Sharp, the two latter well known for their Indian pictures; Moses Ezekiel and Louis Rebisso, sculptors.

Present Art Associations.—The artistic caliber of the city may well be estimated by the number of live art associations within its environs, numbering among their memberships many well-known resident artists. Prominent among these organizations are the Cincinnati Art Club, the Women's Art Club, and the Arts and Crafts Club. These various clubs do much to maintain the artistic spirit of the city and give substantial encouragement to the artist members by means of their exhibits and sales.

Rookwood Pottery.—Cincinnati is noted, through its Rookwood Pottery, for giving to the world some of the most wonderful vases and tiles. This institution first took form in the artistic soul of Mrs. Marie Longworth Storer. But at its inception no one ever dreamed how great would be its fame, and that some day Cincinnati and Rookwood would become synonymous in the minds of many lovers of art.

The Ohio Mechanics' Institute.—The mission of the arts and crafts classes of the Ohio Mechanics' Institute to foster the arts in all the trades has been ably fulfilled. These classes have been of inestimable value in developing the artistic temperament of its young people. The Ohio Mechanics' Institute main-

tains the only school of lithography in America. This was established and is maintained by an association of lithographic companies of the country. It is fitting that such a school should be located in our city, as some of the best known lithographing establishments of the country are operated here. Those plants require the services of a large force of well trained artists. Their productions, which are sent to all parts of the world, help to advertise the artistic strength of Cincinnati.

The Public School.—Other private institutions which encourage the study of art might be mentioned; but to the public schools is left the art culture of the masses. The mission of the public schools is to develop the appreciation of the beautiful in all the children no less than to find the embryo artist, to teach them to discover the beautiful, and to apply it in the various walks of life. To meet these ends, the public schools have been ever on the alert to maintain a high standard of art work, and to establish such courses as will meet the art requirements of all. Throughout the entire curriculum the art course has in view the many phases of art activity in the commercial and industrial world, as well as the application of art to the home and daily life. As a result of a close cooperation of the school and the museum authorities, all the children have free access to the museum when accompanied by their teachers. Thousands of them avail themselves of this privilege each year. The art training given in the public school classes previous to such visits makes them especially profitable to the children.

For high school pupils desiring to make art their special vocation, a course is designed which permits them to attend the art academy for a part of each day. By a similar cooperation between the Art Academy, the public schools, and the Teachers' College of the University of Cincinnati, a teachers' art course is made possible. This course prepares advanced art students to supervise and teach art and the crafts in public and private schools. The museum also provides for the teachers a course of lectures on the history of art.

Importance of Art Instruction.—To teach the people to recognize the beauty of nature and to know the joy of its contemplation are of prime importance in education. When the masses will crowd the hills to drink in the beauty of the landscape, and when they become impatient of the marring of its beauty by smoke and dirt and unsightly obstructions, so much

the sooner will these hindrances of civic improvement be removed. It is public sentiment which ever makes possible the carrying out of the laws. When the work of our school gardens has sufficiently influenced the children, the parks will be universally recognized as the beauty spots of our city. They will become justly popular as pleasure haunts. The demands for good roads and boulevards to link them together will then become imperative. When the people have responded to art and culture, and the city as a whole has had the full benefits of a scheme of city planning, now provided for by law, the eye will refuse to rest on unsightly buildings and useless slopes. Public and private institutions will be forced to meet the public demands for civic beauty. The basin of the city will become as sightly as the surrounding hilltops. Then will Cincinnati be even more beautiful than in her primitive glory.

CHAPTER XIV

Music

In searching through the public and private libraries of Cincinnati for facts touching the origin and growth of music in this community, one is surprised at the vigor and fertility of the city's social soil, which has fostered and developed this art from the early period of the city's history to the present day.

The First Singing Master.—Twelve years after the settlement of the community as Losantiville, the population numbered seven hundred and fifty. It was at this time that Mr. McLean, the village butcher, public officer, and singing-master, advertised in a local paper that he would maintain a singing school by subscription at one dollar a member for thirteen nights, or two dollars per quarter, "subscribers to find their own wood and candles".

The First Publication.—In April, 1815, proposals were advertised in Liberty Hall, Cincinnati, for the publication by subscription of "a new and valuable collection of music entitled 'The Western Harmonist,' by John McCormick," in which appeared a statement that "The author, having been many years in the contemplation of this work, flatters himself that he will be able to furnish the different societies with the most useful tunes and anthems." A band then existed at the fort which could play, among other numbers, such selections as "America." On the Fourth of July "cannons were used to add emphasis to their selections."

Early Singing Societies.—The year that the village became a city (1819) the Episcopal Singing Society was organized. This society had a gift of a lot from Arthur St. Clair, and a permanent home from Mr. Jacob Baymiller. Even to-day few musical societies can boast of such luxuries.

The young city also had its Haydn Society. This was composed of the best singers from different choral societies. Three such societies united in giving a concert in 1821, at which

"Comfort Ye My People" and the "Hallelujah Chorus" from the "Messiah" were sung. This was the first public rendition in the city of this masterpiece. All this was within one generation after the settlement northwest from the Ohio River, scarcely more than twenty years from the time when the members of the First Presbyterian Church were subject to a fine if they came to meeting without their rifles.

Orchestra and School Music.—The visit of LaFayette in 1825 provided the needed stimulus for the organization of a symphony orchestra. The orchestra was under the direction of Joseph Tosso, one of the most famous violinists of his day.

In 1834 the city sprang into fame as a center of musical learning by establishing the Eclectic Academy of Music. This academy maintained both a chorus and an orchestra. In 1842 a choral class for adults was organized in the basement of the old Sixth Presbyterian Church, by Charles Aiken. The class was instructed in a method which, it was claimed, "was adaptable to old and young alike." The system there begun has been used in the Cincinnati schools since the fall of the year 1846.

The first Saengerfest of America was held in Cincinnati in 1849. This great festival of song, participated in specially by the German people, is said to have been the inspiration for the present Cincinnati May Festivals. When the Saengerfest of 1870 met, it was found necessary to build a hall capable of accommodating three thousand singers and instrumentalists, besides the attending audience.

Music Hall.—The biennial May Festival began its work in 1873. The wonderful artistic and financial success of this festival and that of 1875 suggested the needs of a permanent music hall for Cincinnati. This need was met, a design was planned, and in a few years a hall was built at Elm near Twelfth containing one of the dozen gigantic organs of the world. Cincinnati Music Hall is a public institution—a gift to the city under the control of a self-perpetuating and incorporated organization of citizens.

The present Superintendent of Schools, Randall J. Condon, in his annual report to the Board of Education of 1914, gives the following historical view of the musical life of Cincinnati:

The College of Music.—From the College of Music of Cincinnati, founded October 14, 1878, emanate influences which, for the last thirty-six years, have helped to form and sustain the

musical organizations and the musical art of Cincinnati. The college is an eleemosynary institution, handsomely endowed by Mr. Reuben R. Springer and a number of benevolent citizens of Cincinnati. . . .

In addition to various courses of musical instruction, the college now undertakes the training of supervisors of public school music, the practical training of piano teachers and operatic repertoire.

MUSIC HALL

The first musical director of the College of Music was the late Theodore Thomas, who was also for many years director of the famous Cincinnati May Music Festivals. In proffering Mr. Thomas the position, the founders of the institution state its purpose as follows:

> It is proposed to establish an institution of musical education upon the scale of the most important of those of a similar character in Europe; to employ the highest class of professors, to organize a full orchestra with a school for orchestra and chorus, and to give concerts. . . .

That these noble aims have been fulfilled to an eminent degree is manifested in the artistic success which the institution continues to enjoy.

The Conservatory of Music.—The Conservatory of Music has for many years been in close cooperation with the public schools of the city by granting requests for musical programs for

special occasions in kindergartens, day and night schools, vacation schools, mothers' meetings, and social centers. . . .

Its doors have always been thrown open to the public, whether the event be a concert by one of the famous virtuosi of the faculty, by the Conservatory orchestra, or by talented students of the institution. That there is an intense desire for good music by the general public is proved by the large audiences attending these concerts. . . .

The Cincinnati Music Festivals (May Festivals). Grove's Dictionary of Music and Musicians, the standard English and American authority, says, in referring to these Festivals: "The most notable of the regular recurring musical meetings in the United States are those held biennially in Cincinnati, Ohio. . . . They have, beyond question, exerted a more powerful influence for musical culture than any institution of their kind."

The declared purpose of the Cincinnati Musical Festival Association is the production of the great choral masterpieces of the world's music under the most favorable auspices, with accessories suitable to their dignity and importance. With this high standard in view, the association has constantly sought to improve the quality of the chorus, which is the basis of the Festivals, and has uniformly employed the best orchestra and soloists obtainable. The Theodore Thomas (Chicago Symphony) Orchestra has been used in all Festivals except those in 1906 and 1914, when the Cincinnati Symphony Orchestra replaced it. The soloists enlisted have been the most eminent singers of two continents. On many occasions notable European artists have been first introduced to American audiences at the Cincinnati Festivals.

The first Festival was held in 1873. Its success suggested a second in 1875. Since that time they have recurred biennially, the Festival of 1914 being the twenty-first of the series.

The basis of the organization, as already stated, is the chorus; this now numbers 350 singers. Any person possessing a good and musically true voice, and with some facility in reading music, is eligible. All applicants are examined by the chorus master. As a result of this policy and of the patriotic interest in the organization by citizens generally, the quality and consequent effectiveness of the chorus have constantly improved. An examination of the rolls of the chorus will discover hundreds of names of the most prominent and distinguished men and

women of the city, all of whom feel a personal pride in the part they have taken in these great concerts.

During recent years, a body of children from the public schools—from 300 to 1,000 singers—have taken part in the Festivals, with distinct credit to themselves and to their instructors. The Superintendent of Schools has especially recognized the high value to the children of the training involved in their participation in the Festival work, and has commended their performance in his official annual reports.

The Cincinnati Symphony Orchestra.—In 1872 a few public-spirited, music-loving women conceived the idea of establishing in Cincinnati a symphony orchestra on a permanent basis through public subscription. Cincinnati has long enjoyed a reputation as a musical city, and has attracted from the Old World some fine musicians. From their ranks a Philharmonic Orchestra was formed in 1872, which was the pioneer symphony orchestra of the West. Concerts were given by this and other musical organizations, which stimulated a desire for a permanent Cincinnati Orchestra.

Finally a plan, originating in the Ladies' Musical Club, was definitely outlined. As a result of the enthusiasm and enterprise of this club, the Cincinnati Orchestra Association Company was formed in the spring of 1894, with a board of fifteen women in control, and Mrs. William H. Taft as president. An appeal was sent out to "all patriotic citizens" asking for financial assistance for the enterprise, and in a few weeks a sufficient sum was raised or guaranteed to make it possible to begin in a modest but adequate way. It was distinctly a woman's movement.

The first season of the Cincinnati Orchestra was opened in 1894 in Pike's Opera House, with an orchestra of something over fifty men. . . .

In 1896 the orchestra was increased to seventy men. Pike's Opera House being no longer available, having been burned down, the concerts were transferred to Music Hall, where they were given until the winter of 1911. About this time Mrs. Thomas J. Emery had constructed a building for the Ohio Mechanics' Institute. The auditorium was so designed as to make it adaptable to the purpose of the orchestra, and in this beautiful auditorium the concerts have since been given. . . .

As museums of art afford opportunities of studying and

enjoying the great sculptures and paintings, so do our orchestras make clear to us the best there is in music. Any one with this idea in mind will see their importance, and will do whatever lies in his power to further their advancement. In Cincinnati there has been developed an orchestra that ranks among the first in the country.

A conspicuous example of public spirit and high appreciation of the work of the orchestra has been the bequest to it in 1915 by Miss Cora Dow of more than half a million dollars to be held as an endowment.

Piano Teaching in the Schools.—A class of 126 pupils was organized at Woodward High School on February 8, 1915, to receive a course of piano instruction under school discipline. This innovation, the first of its kind in the country, has been watched with more than ordinary interest, both at home and abroad. A standard is being set by our high schools and a way opened for our teachers to credit all out of school work, provided the pupils, upon examination, have measured up to a required standard. A minimum requirement of piano study which shall be accepted by teachers and accomplished by all pupils seeking credit for the same, is the next move in the educational world of music.

School Orchestras.—Besides the piano work in the schools, the Board of Education encourages the study of orchestral instruments, and purchases those that are purely of that nature. Credit is given to pupils for their work toward graduation. Hundreds of pupils are availing themselves of the chances offered to enter these music classes. In June, 1915, Dr. Kunwald, the director of the Symphony Orchestra, was appointed in an advisory capacity over the high school orchestras. This was a great uplift to them, placing them in closer relations with the Symphony Orchestra and the masterpieces of the world.

Music in the Community.—Upwards of six hundred people are following the vocation of teaching music in Cincinnati. There are, besides this force, workers upon instruments of wood and brass, piano and organ makers, sending their goods all over the nation; music publishers, typesetters and engravers; composers, writers on music, and editors; colleges of music and their train, with some of the best artists of the world living with us. All are studying music, as if this were the one great industry of the world.

MUSIC

Music has its place in a community, not from its commercial uses, but as a great factor in training the emotions in the abstract, just as geometry trains the mind in the abstract. Through music people are taught love of God, love of country, of nature, and of friends. One cannot appreciate too highly the unutterable energies residing in the three energies—church music, national airs, and fireside melodies—as the means of informing and enlarging the mighty heart of a free people.

CHAPTER XV

Recreation

Work, play, love, and worship are set down as the four chief essentials in a human being's existence by Dr. Richard C. Cabot, in his recent book, "What Men Live By." Frederick Howe says "Civilization depends largely on the way people use their leisure." The use of leisure usually means recreation, play.

The country at large is awakening to a realization of the vital importance of this subject. This is evidenced by the fact that since 1907 the number of American cities that provide equipped and supervised playgrounds and recreation centers has increased from 40 to 342 (Springfield Recreation Survey, p. 97).

With the advance of civilization and the remarkable growth of urban population in America, it is natural that the duties of cities should increase in number, new problems should arise, new projects be put forth, and thus new responsibilities constantly fall upon the different departments of city government.

The problem of public recreation and public playgrounds is one of the most recent developments of city government. It should be met and is being met by municipal agencies. In ancient times it was only the wealthier classes that had sufficient leisure to devote to amusement and the enjoyment of life. Working men worked from dawn to long after sunset. To-day both rich and poor are being given ample opportunity for recreation.

Why Parks and Playgrounds Are Needed.—With the rapid increase in size and population of American cities and the development of trade and industry, there has grown up a fundamental need for playgrounds and a recreation system. In congested city districts there was no opportunity for adult recreation other than clubs, saloons, poolrooms, and theaters. Children were forced to gather in streets, alleys, and vacant lots for

amusement. Probably nowhere in the country was this situation more acute than in the downtown districts of Cincinnati.

Cincinnati's park system, with its playgrounds and athletic fields, has completely altered these conditions. The beautiful fields and woods and the downtown breathing spaces are of inestimable value to the adults. The athletic fields and playgrounds allow the children to have a real place to play without getting into difficulty with the law, a place where they may play under wholesome guidance.

The public playground is simply a place in the community set apart where children may go to enjoy and amuse themselves;

TYPICAL PUBLIC PLAY GROUND: LYTLE PARK

where they will find swings, slides, sand piles, and many other attractive things foreign to their own yards; and where they may run, play ball and various games without being "chased or caught by a cop."

Playgrounds and Juvenile Delinquency.—All persons in favor of the playground movement recognize in it distinct educational and moral advantages, and agree that the establishment of playgrounds decreases the amount of juvenile delinquency. The latter is one of its greatest advantages. Juvenile delinquency is the outcome of moral weakness and is caused chiefly by congestion of city population and misdirected play, because children are forced to play by themselves without supervision in streets and alleys. Playgrounds help to solve this problem. As to the effect of playgrounds on the decrease of

juvenile delinquency, it might be interesting to note the results of an investigation recently made in Cincinnati.

The Juvenile Court records were taken in contrasting years, for 1910, when the playgrounds had just been established, and for 1914, when they were in good working order. A record of delinquent cases was kept for each year during the playground season, from May to September. The area covered by the record is bounded, roughly, by Front Street on the south, McMicken on the north, the district of the Pennsylvania Railroad station on the east, and the district of the ball park on the west.

As a result, it was found that there were 142 cases of delinquency in 1910, against 95 cases in 1914, showing a decrease of about 32.5 per cent in the number of cases after there were more playgrounds in the city. This percentage should not be quoted as accurate, attributing the decrease to playgrounds alone, for the decrease is probably due in part to the work of other agencies, such as the Associated Charities and social settlements. Nevertheless, it proves to a certain extent the good influence of playgrounds. For further evidence, the cases of delinquency were counted in the immediate districts of several playgrounds. In each district a decrease in delinquency was found.

Playgrounds and Social Standards. The playground is one of the best agencies for raising social standards. It improves the whole neighborhood of which it forms the center. Children learn on the playground many practical things. They learn better ways of living; they get their mothers interested, and, as a result, we have better kept homes, and hence a generally improved neighborhood. In the end, the city is rewarded for its large expense of money and labor by receiving the support of healthier and more efficient citizens. The children quarrel less and laugh more, for they are busier and healthier.

Supervision of Playgrounds. Playgrounds having been established, it was soon found necessary to provide supervisors or playground directors. The playground director is a necessary addition to the playground. He teaches the children new games and plays with them. He shows them how to use the apparatus in the right way. His presence is necessary to prevent accidents, and his help is necessary if accidents should occur. Supervision is indeed the secret of playground success. It adds incentive to children's play, and tends to establish wholesome habits of thought and action.

Development of Playgrounds in Cincinnati. In comparison with other cities, there has been an excellent development of playgrounds in Cincinnati. The playgrounds are organized under two separate municipal departments, the Board of Park Commissioners and the Board of Education. (On this point see also chapter XXI on The Municipal Government.)

Prior to 1907 Cincinnati had neither playgrounds nor a park system. The idea was initiated in 1906, when City Council passed an ordinance providing $15,000 to develop plans for a park system for Cincinnati. A Board of Park Commissioners was appointed. This board began by investigating plans of various cities, and finally worked out and adopted a plan providing for parks, boulevards, playgrounds, and athletic fields. A study was made of the population in congested districts. As a result of this study, the playgrounds were placed where they were most needed. The first public playground was opened in 1909, and proved so successful that several more were constructed during the next few years. By 1915 there were 17 equipped playgrounds in successful operation. They are opened officially on May 15 and closed on October 15 of each year.

Coincident with the development of park playgrounds came the school playgrounds. These were opened either in school yards or near them. The work advanced rapidly, until at present (1916) at least one-half of the public schools have either total or partial playground equipment. In recent years the extension of the park playgrounds made it practically unnecessary for the Board of Education to continue its playground work. Since both the Park Commissioners and Board of Education are working on the playground problem, a natural cooperation has grown up between the two. The Board of Park Commissioners purchases and equips playgrounds. The Board of Education provides the directors. In addition to this, it is almost a settled policy that the Board of Park Commissioners will try to construct playgrounds in the vicinity of the schools. In turn, the Board of Education will try to locate new schools near playgrounds already existing, in so far as it is practicable.

Commercial Recreation.—The development of industry and of the factory system in Cincinnati has forced the working people into densely populated and crowded city districts. The downtown homes, once clean and pretty, became unattractive and overcrowded. The natural instinct for play and amusement

was pushed beyond control of the home and family. For this reason boys and girls turned to what is known as commercial recreation. Among the most common forms of this are moving picture shows, theaters, pool and billiard rooms, shooting galleries, bowling alleys, saloons and beer gardens, public dance halls, skating rinks, amusement parks, excursion boats, and bathing beaches. "Commercial recreation is not interested in culture. It is interested in profits."

Until recently commercial recreation was looked upon solely as a private business venture, concerning no one but the owner of the amusement enterprise. Social students have now come to realize the importance of healthy recreation, and believe that, since commercial recreation meets a social want, it must be subject to social control. Social control is the only way to secure wholesome amusement for the people.

In 1912 the Juvenile Protective Association made an investigation of commercial recreation in Cincinnati. It found that many places needed supervision. Since then it has succeeded in having several city ordinances passed applying to dance halls, excursion boats, picture shows, and pool rooms, which already have greatly improved the standards of these places. This is a step in advance. But new and better methods of supervision of commercial recreation are still needed.

Athletic Fields.—Perhaps in no place in the country is amateur baseball developed and encouraged in such a thoroughly helpful manner as in Cincinnati. There are 32 baseball grounds

ONE OF CINCINNATI'S 21 ATHLETIC FIELDS: HUNT STREET

and 21 athletic fields upon park property. Amateur teams wishing to play their games upon these grounds are federated through the agency of the Director of Recreation, who is an employee of the Board of Park Commissioners. Umpires are assigned by him. It is he who lays out the schedule of games. Clean sport is thus encouraged, and such occurrences as improper language, ungentlemanly actions, and quarreling are barred. Boys are given an opportunity to exercise their capacity for leadership and self-control, and to allow their enthusiasm to lead them through healthy recreation to the ideal of a clean mind in a sound body.

Recreation is here also supervised through a municipal agency, but for older persons than the children who use the playgrounds.

Parks and Boulevards.—Cincinnati's park system now consists (1916) of 2,500 acres of parks, 2½ miles of parkway, 17 tennis courts, 4 golf courses, 21 athletic fields with baseball diamonds, and 24 playgrounds. Hundreds of acres of parks have been given to the city by public spirited citizens. The cost to the city, including improvements, has been large—about $6,500,000. The annual expense of maintenance is about $175,000. Our parks are well kept and supervised. When the proposed system is completed, the parks being connected by boulevards, several miles of which have been already constructed, Cincinnati will be as well equipped as any city in the country.

The beauty of the Cincinnati parks is unsurpassed in the United States. Unlike many American cities, which are often situated on the plain, the topography of the city lends itself to magnificent views and exquisite groves and open spaces. The people own all this. The grounds and equipment are public property, and are maintained in the finest possible manner by a board of citizens who freely give of their time for that special purpose. The people are beginning to use the parks freely. There is not a single "Keep off the Grass" sign in any of them. The greenhouses in Eden Park, the lakes and streams, the grassy slopes, the original forests, the fresh air and wonderful views are all free. The Board of Park Commissioners, through its expert employees, is pleased to give to any citizen free advice as to planting or laying out his own grounds, whether large or small, and offers every facility for such service to the public.

The Future.—Cincinnati has accomplished much in her efforts to provide recreation facilities for her citizens. The city may well feel pleased with the advances made and the results attained in the few short years from 1907, with only 469 acres of parks, to the present time (1916), with 2,500 acres. There

OHIO RIVER FROM EDEN PARK

are still difficulties to overcome, corrections and administrative improvements to be made; but these difficulties will be conquered through experience as time goes on. To the extent that our city is backed by interested and patriotic citizens working for higher standards in all municipal affairs, including recreation, there can be little doubt as to future progress and success in the establishment of one of the finest chain of recreative centers in the United States.

Business Interests

CHAPTER XVI

The Early Development of Industry and Commerce in Cincinnati

The Beginnings of Commerce.—During the "flatboat period" (1789-1817), at the beginning of Cincinnati's economic life, agriculture was the only occupation. After the Indian wars, settlers commenced to occupy the land in greater numbers. Soon there began the production of a surplus of agricultural products, for which there was no market in the Ohio Valley. This surplus was exported to outside markets on the Atlantic Coast, via New Orleans.

The pioneer merchants engaged in this business encountered many difficulties and hardships. They bought pork and packed it; they bought wheat and had it ground into flour; they made flatboats, and upon them, at considerable expense and risk, floated their products to New Orleans. From New Orleans there were two routes by which they returned to Cincinnati: one, 1,100 miles over the Natchez Trace through the Indian country; another by sea, to Philadelphia or Baltimore. One merchant made fourteen such trips. He traveled home by land eight times, and was usually thirty days in returning.

The lack of good roads did much to retard the development of the country. The first roads were only trails. The trails developed into wagon roads, but of a primitive character. By 1809 mud roads connected the principal towns of the Miami Country. Zane's Trace connected Southwestern Ohio with the East.

Transportation under such conditions was necessarily expensive. For example, it cost $1.10 per barrel to ship flour from Cincinnati to Hamilton. The stage fare from Cincinnati to Yellow Springs (about seventy-five miles north) was $5.00 in 1805. Furthermore, the cost of transportation greatly affected the price of products. In the back country corn was sold for as low as ten cents per bushel, and pork $1.00 per hundredweight. Frequently cattle were driven to market as far east as Baltimore.

The Beginnings of Industry.—Originally, the farmers made nearly all the clothing and utensils which they and their families required. Industries, however, soon began. As early as February 29, 1794, a tanner advertised for an apprentice in the "Sentinel of the Northwest Territory." George Klyer & Sons, potters, October 3, 1795, "begged leave to inform the public" that they were in business in their shop opposite the printing office. By 1799 a considerable number of manufacturers, including blacksmiths, gunsmiths, and cabinet makers, were advertising in the "Western Spy" and the "Hamilton Gazette." In 1804 James Richey advertised that he was engaged in the blue-dyeing business, and would also conduct a school where reading, writing, and arithmetic would be taught. In 1809 two cotton factories and artisans representing nearly forty trades supplied a large proportion of manufactured goods to the local community. There were no steam mills as yet. Ox mills and water power mills furnished the only power used in the Miami Country. Manufactures were then (as the word indicates) carried out mostly by hand. Local manufacture began at an early date simply to avoid the cost of the long haul under conditions of primitive transportation. It was found cheaper to import artisans than to import manufactured products.

The first conscious effort to encourage manufactures in Cincinnati was not shown until near the close of the War of 1812. The toast of the Fourth of July celebration in 1814 was "Our Manufactures: a still, small voice, but persistent and energetic!" In that year the Cincinnati steam mill was built. This was a most unusual structure, 62 by 87 feet and 140 feet high, with walls 10 feet thick. It manufactured flour, cotton and woolen goods, and flaxseed oil. In 1814 Cincinnati had also four cotton spinning establishments, 91 wool carding machines, a steam sawmill, and a sugar refinery. Industry had begun.

Cincinnati in 1815.—By 1815 Cincinnati's population was nearly equal to that of Pittsburgh, and by 1820 it exceeded that of Pittsburgh by 2,359. The city then extended half a mile back from the river, and occupied nearly a mile of the river front.

The exports continued to be largely agricultural. Flour, pork, and whiskey took the lead. The Miami Country was the wheat and corn belt of the West at that period. The fertile

soil produced abundantly wherever it was cultivated. The economic problem was to turn the product into a form which could be shipped easily and cheaply. The wheat was therefore either ground into flour at one of the local mills on one of the Miami Rivers or smaller streams, or it was sent to the big steam mill in Cincinnati, just constructed, with its 70 horse power engine and four pairs of six-foot buhrs, with a capacity of 700 barrels per week.

From down in Kentucky, as well as from much of Ohio, the settlers continued to drive their cattle over the Alleghenies to be fattened in the valley of the Potomac or in Pennsylvania for the eastern market. Richard Fosdick had given the Miami Country its first lessons in pork packing. Droves of swine were beginning to move toward Cincinnati for slaughter and shipment down the river. The surplus corn that was not fed to hogs continued to be turned into whiskey and the surplus fruit into brandy. This is the usual method of reducing bulk and weight of grain and fruit for purposes of shipment from frontier communities wherever transportation routes have not been established. Beer, porter, pot and pearl ash, cheese, soap, candles, hemp, spun yarn, lumber, and cabinet furniture were also articles of export.

The cotton and sugar regions of the lower Mississippi Valley were as yet, in 1815, taking but small quantities, if any, of the local productions of flour, pork, and whiskey. The West Indies and the Atlantic States continued to be the great markets for these products. A rush of population to the southern part of the great valley soon changed this. The time was not long before these settlers were sending to Cincinnati for steam engines, cotton gins, sugar mills, and other articles of manufacture, as well as for food products.

In several lines of manufactured goods the local artisans were already supplying the demand of the surrounding country. But there is no evidence that Cincinnati was sending more than a limited amount of exports to the lower river country, except fur hats to the Mississippi in exchange for furs. Cincinnati at that time contained no surplus of laboring population, nor of capital. The men were engaged in clearing and improving the wilderness, so there was little opportunity for manufactures until the necessary labor and capital should come in. Yet there was a nucleus for the rapid rise of manufactures that

was soon to begin. The town contained no iron foundry. But there were several blacksmith shops already engaged in making cut and wrought nails. Besides these, there came coppersmiths and tinsmiths. Rifles, fowling pieces, pistols, disks, and gun-locks were manufactured. There were in operation in Cincinnati a steam sawmill with a capacity of 8,000 feet per day; 23 cotton spinning mills and "throstles" carrying 3,300 spindles; 130 wool spinning machines and 14 cotton and 91 wool carding machines; 2 rope walks; 6 tanneries. A sugar refinery was just being built. As early as 1806 James Dover established the first brewery at the foot of Race Street. Two others were established before 1815. Other manufactured articles were trunks covered with deer skin, brushes, blank books, six or seven tons of white lead per week, furniture, wagons, carts, drays, coaches, and phaetons.

Cincinnati's Opportunities in 1817.—Cincinnati had a marvelous growth as the metropolis of the Miami Country. With the coming of the steamboat, it had opportunity to do business with the rest of the Mississippi Valley, and was soon to become the metropolis of a rich and growing region.

Let us see what were the resources and opportunities at its command. It had the advantages of being an established community in possession of a small accumulation of capital. Artisans of various trades composed a large portion of the population. Cincinnati was the metropolis of the richest agricultural region of the Northwest, a region a part of which had already a population of nearly forty-five inhabitants to the square mile. (The average number of people to the square mile in Ohio in 1910 was 117.) The population was growing rapidly, and would demand an increasing quantity of manufactured and imported goods, for which the city would be ready to exchange a large surplus of farm products. This was a population that was improving the highways, building substantial brick and frame houses, discarding the log cabins of an earlier day. A newer West was growing rapidly on the lower Ohio and on the upper Mississippi. The inhabitants were demanding a convenient market in which to make their purchases, but already they themselves were competitors of Cincinnati for the sale of farm products.

On the lower Mississippi was a rich agricultural region into which there began a great rush of population about 1818. Here

was a region characterized by a distinctive kind of agriculture: using slave labor, raising cotton and sugar, to the exclusion of a food supply sufficient even for home consumption, and producing no manufactures whatever. It was in this region that Cincinnati found its best market for surplus flour, pork, and whiskey and all her manufactures. New Orleans was a convenient port from which to export the surplus which the South did not take. To New Orleans the local merchants went for a large part of their foreign trade.

Cincinnati's opportunities for industrial growth were not less than its chances for commercial development. It had a supply of wood near at hand. The Ohio River furnished the cheapest kind of transportation from the coal and iron mines of Ohio, Pennsylvania, and West Virginia. Hemp was obtained from the nearby Blue Grass region of Kentucky, and lead from Missouri. The long haul and primitive land transportation were sufficient protection from competition of the Atlantic cities, for the heavier articles at least. In addition to all this, it had close connection with a rapidly growing region that needed such goods as could be manufactured. It was under these conditions that the successful voyage of Captain Shreve's "Washington" in 1817 ushered in the period of the steamboat.

The Beginning of Steamboat Navigation.—The preliminaries for the beginning of steamboat navigation on the Ohio were arranged in connection with a wedding journey. Nicholas J. Roosevelt and his bride, in an especially constructed flatboat, floated from Pittsburgh to New Orleans in May, 1809. Mr. Roosevelt gauged the depth of the river, measured its velocity, and endeavored to determine the practicability of steamboat navigation. He returned to Pittsburgh via New York in January, 1810, and commenced to build the "Orleans," the first steamboat on western waters. This vessel was 116 feet long, 20 feet wide, and cost $38,000. She left Pittsburgh for New Orleans on September 28, 1811, and landed at Cincinnati two days later. The voyage down the Mississippi was at the time of a memorable earthquake; the channel of the river changed, islands disappeared. But this pioneer vessel reached New Orleans in safety, only to be sunk by running on a snag on a subsequent voyage.

The "Enterprise," the fourth boat on the Ohio, and the first to ascend the Mississippi and Ohio Rivers, was a small vessel

having a capacity of thirty-five tons. She conveyed ordinance stores from Pittsburgh to New Orleans in 1814; and in 1815, during the battle of New Orleans, was used by Jackson's army. The "Enterprise" made the trip from New Orleans to Louisville in 25 days.

The "Washington," built from the old timbers of Fort Henry at Wheeling, was the first boat to demonstrate the practicability of upstream navigation. In 1817 she made the trip from New Orleans to Louisville in 25 days. The effect of this success was at once apparent. Previous to the close of 1816 only 14 steamboats had been built on the western waters; but from the date of the voyage of the "Washington," the number increased rapidly. By 1829, 314 had been built, of which number 133 were then running.

(Photo by Rombach & Groene.)

THE PUBLIC LANDING, LONG AGO

By 1848 steamboating was placed on a systematic basis. Lines of packets operated regularly between Cincinnati, Pittsburgh, Louisville, St. Louis, Memphis, and New Orleans. Steamboat excursions became a favorite pastime; the trip to New Orleans indeed often resembled a pleasure party.

Canals.—Connection with the back country was still a serious problem. This need had been recognized by Dr. Daniel Drake as early as 1815, when he proposed a canal from Cincinnati to Hamilton. The growth of Cincinnati in a great measure depended upon this, and Cincinnati men especially took the lead in the movement. In 1818 Governor Brown urged the construction of canals in Ohio to increase industry and develop the resources of the State. A board of canal commissioners was appointed in 1822, of which Micajah J. Williams, of Cincinnati, was the most enthusiastic member. To Williams, more than any other man, was due the speedy construction of canals in Ohio. This work began in 1825, when Governor Clinton, of

New York, turned the first spadeful of earth on the Ohio and Erie Canal at Newark, and on the Miami and Erie Canal at Middletown. The Miami and Erie Canal was complete between Cincinnati and Dayton in November, 1828. Navigation began in the following March. By July there had arrived over the canal 2,372 passengers. Three passenger packets per week were put in service, and in 1832 it was estimated that 1,000 people per week traveled between Cincinnati and Dayton.

The construction of canals in Ohio caused a rapid development of the interior of the state, and greatly increased the com-

THE CANAL IN THE OLD DAYS

merce of Cincinnati. The effect on prices was marked. In 1825 wheat was selling at twenty to thirty cents per bushel. After the completion of the canal it rose to fifty and even seventy-five cents per bushel. Foreign articles were rendered proportionally cheaper. In 1829 a bushel of wheat was equal in value to 5 5-9 pounds of sugar, or 3 1-3 pounds of coffee. In 1857 a bushel of wheat equaled 14 1-5 pounds of sugar or 8 1-2 pounds of coffee.

The Miami and Erie Canal was completed to Toledo in 1845. Transportation was not established upon the White Water Canal until 1848, too late to be of service as railroad building had commenced in the Middle West.

Highways.—For many years the highways leading out of Cincinnati were mud roads, inaccessible through the greater

part of the year. The improvement of highways in the neighborhood of Cincinnati did not begin in earnest until about 1833. Then began the era of building toll roads, called turnpikes. The principal roads out of Cincinnati were built within a few years after that date. They cheapened the cost of transportation, and greatly increased the profits of the farmers.

These roads were not free to the public, as they were built by private capital. At frequent intervals toll gates were placed, where the "toll" was collected. The last toll gate was eliminated in Hamilton County only a few years ago, when the road, by purchase of the county, became public property. A picture of this old toll gate is shown.

The last toll gate in Cincinnati; Delhi Pike

An increased surplus from 100 miles around Cincinnati came to market over these turnpike roads. The groceries and manufactured goods bought in Cincinnati were hauled to the villages and farms round about. The new roads also brought about a great increase in the number of stage coach lines.

With the improvement of means of transportation there came a great increase in population and a corresponding increase in the amount of agricultural products. Farmers could now market a greater surplus, and buy store goods at greatly reduced rates.

But the product of most interest to Cincinnati was the hog. Hogs were fattened on corn and driven to town to be slaughtered and prepared for market. The entire region within a radius of 150 miles of Cincinnati contributed to making Cincinnati a great pork market. The business began to be important about 1825, but it was greatly increased by the opening of the Miami and Erie Canal. In 1833 Cincinnati slaughtered nearly 85,000 hogs; in 1850, 401,755. By 1860 the annual product was $6,300,000. In 1909, the last year for which census figures are available, the value of the annual product of slaughtering and meat packing was $19,922,613. The business at first was located along Deer Creek. Later it moved near Mohawk Bridge, and then to Brighton.

Manufacturing. The manufacturing development of Cincinnati which had begun at the close of the War of 1812 was checked by the panic of 1819. By 1826, however, there began a career of rapid manufacturing. The city then was producing $1,880,000 annually. A rapidly growing West and South were taking more and more of its farm implements, steam engines, planing mills, sawmills, sugar machinery, cotton gins, furniture, cabinet work, etc. Raw materials, such as coal, iron, wood, leather, etc., were abundant and cheap.

The fifteen years following 1826 may be called the formative period in Cincinnati's industries. Products increased ten-fold. Lines were established that continued for many years; and, indeed, still in a great measure determine the industries of the city. The workshop of 1826, with two or three apprentices, developed into a factory. The manufactured products were still, however, mostly handwork. The number of power plants was limited. A few steam engines were in use. And a few mills were using water power from the canal.

Cincinnati at that time was endeavoring to compete with the East, not by underselling, but by making a superior article. As was said by a manufacturer of that time, "The whole competition here is, Who can make the best piece of goods? not Who will make the cheapest?"

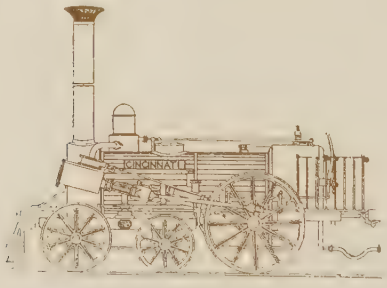
From 1841 to 1859 there was a period of rapid development. In 1841 the value of Cincinnati's manufactured products amounted to $18,000,000; in 1851, to $54,000,000; in 1860 it had raised to $112,000,000. In 1909 it amounted to $262,000,000.

Early Railroads. While the period of Cincinnati's development between the War of 1812 and the Civil War was distinctly the period of the steamboat, the canal, and the stage coach, yet after 1850 the railroad had so far expanded as materially to affect the economic development of the region tributary to the city.

The first negotiations for the building of a railroad connecting the South with Cincinnati began in 1835. Certain people at Paris, Kentucky, were considering the construction of a road from Paris to Cincinnati. This idea was favored by Dr. Daniel Drake and other leading citizens of Cincinnati, who, with a larger view, proposed extending the contemplated road from Cincinnati to Charleston, South Carolina. A people's

meeting was held at the Commercial Exchange on the Public Landing, August 10, 1835, for the purpose of considering the proposition. At this meeting a committee of three was appointed to inquire into the matter and report on the advantages of the proposed road. Dr. Drake was chairman of the committee. At a later meeting, August 15, he read an elaborate report setting forth the commercial, social, and political advantages of this road to Charleston. He pointed out that the Miami Canal and the Ohio Canal would connect the northern lakes and the territory adjoining them with the proposed road, and that the Wabash and Erie Canal and the proposed railroad from Lawrenceburg to Indianapolis would carry its advantages into Indiana. The Ohio River would connect with the entire Mississippi Valley. "Thus the proposed main trunk from Cincinnati to Charleston would resemble an immense horizontal tree, extending its roots through and into ten States and a vast expanse of uninhabited territory in the northern interior of the Union, while its branches would wind through half as many populous States on the southern seaboard."

One of the earliest locomotives ever operated in the United States was the "Cincinnati," used by the South Carolina Railroad Company. It was one of three, the others being named the "Kentucky" and the "Allen," built by "Tayleur of England" in 1835, and used on what was to be the southern end of the great line connecting Cincinnati with Charleston. The names "Kentucky" and "Cincinnati" are significant of the purpose of the projectors of the South Carolina railroad to cooperate with our citizens and have their line extended to Cincinnati.



"THE CINCINNATI," 1835

A general interest in the movement was aroused throughout the South. As a consequence, in February, 1836, the Kentucky Legislature granted a right of way for the proposed road through the State of Kentucky. In honor of this occasion there was a grand celebration by the three cities of Cincinnati, Covington, and Newport. Cincinnati was brilliantly illuminated;

and, in spite of a snowstorm, an enthusiastic torchlight procession paraded the streets.

In the summer of the same year a great railroad convention was held at Knoxville, attended by delegates from nine States, and presided over by Governor Robert Young Hayne, of South Carolina. The delegates from Ohio were Governor Vance, Dr. Drake, and E. D. Mansfield. In 1837 the State Legislature authorized Cincinnati to borrow $600,000, one-half of which was to be used for the road to Charleston and the other half of which was for the Little Miami Railroad.

This movement for the Cincinnati and Charleston road failed because of certain impossible conditions imposed by Kentucky in granting the charter. The Kentucky Legislature required that three roads should be built from Lexington to the Ohio River, one terminating at Maysville, one at Louisville, and one at Covington. The money appropriated by Cincinnati for the Charleston road was used for the construction of the Whitewater Canal. This itself was later abandoned. The bed of it is now used as an entrance for the railroads to the Central Union Station at Third Street and Central Avenue.

Other occasions for delay in the construction of a railroad connecting Cincinnati with the South followed one after another. Not until after the Civil War did Cincinnati realize her Southern Railway.

Other railroad schemes followed. The first of these to be completed was the Little Miami Railroad, extending from Cincinnati to Xenia, Ohio, a distance of sixty-five miles. This railroad was later extended to Springfield, eighty-five miles from Cincinnati. From there it was extended to connect with the Mad River and Lake Erie road. The principal reason for building this road was to connect the back country with water transportation. The idea of a through line, other than where navigation was impossible, was never contemplated in this scheme.

The chief engineer of the Little Miami Railroad was Ormsby M. Mitchell, who is better known as the founder of the Cincinnati Observatory. He was also interested in other railroad projects affecting Cincinnati. Mitchell, in cooperation with George W. Neff, secured a loan of $200,000 from the City Council, and induced the State of Ohio to pledge its credit for $115,000 more. They also secured substantial aid from eastern capitalists. The road was built during the trying times of the panic

of 1837 and after. The company was for this reason under frequent and continued embarrassment during its construction. In 1843 these eighty-five miles of strap railroad were at last opened for traffic. The rolling stock consisted of one locomotive, two passenger cars, and eight freight cars, all built in Cincinnati. By July 17, 1844, the road was completed to Xenia. Two years later, August 10, 1846, the first train ran into Springfield. By 1848 Cincinnati had railway connection with Lake Erie at Sandusky. By 1850 it was possible to go by rail from Cincinnati to Columbus, the capital of Ohio, via Xenia.

The Cincinnati, Hamilton, and Dayton, the second railroad built to Cincinnati, was chartered March 2, 1846. It was opened for business on September 19, 1850, a little more than a year after the work of construction had commenced.

Other roads centering in Cincinnati were: the Ohio and Mississippi, to St. Louis, opened May, 1857, and the Marietta and Cincinnati railroad, completed to the Little Miami River at Loveland in May, 1857. These railroads, running in connection with the Baltimore and Ohio railroad, made through continuous trips between Baltimore, Cincinnati, and St. Louis at the beginning of the Civil War. Only three lines then directly entered Cincinnati; but through them Cincinnati had numerous connections to the Lakes and to the Eastern cities. About two thousand miles of railroad had been completed in Ohio by 1859, and nearly three thousand miles were in direct connection with Cincinnati. The city was connected with Baltimore through the Marietta and Ohio and Baltimore and Ohio railroads; with Philadelphia, through the Little Miami and the Pennsylvania; and with New York by way of Lake Erie at Toledo, Sandusky, and Cleveland. Two lines extended to St. Louis. Indirectly, it had also connection with Chicago, which was then (1859) but a small city.

While Cincinnati was reaching out for new trade by way of railroad construction, other cities were doing the same. Lines were extended from Chicago into the Northwest, and from St. Louis into Illinois and up the Missouri. Louisville was cutting off much of our southern trade by the construction of the Louisville and Nashville road. Columbus and Indianapolis were the forerunners of numerous commercial centers not dependent

on water transportation. While the railroads benefited Cincinnati, they also stopped that relatively great increase which marked Cincinnati's growth during the period of the steamboat.

The Cincinnati Southern Railway. Such was Cincinnati's economic development down to 1861. For four years after this, in common with the rest of the country, Cincinnati suffered from the effects of the Civil War. When the South had sufficiently recovered from the stress of war to be able again to buy Cincinnati products, much of the commerce of that region, as well as that of the North, had been deflected from the river to the railroad. Cincinnati's only connection with the South, except the all-water route, was by river to Louisville, thence via Louisville and Nashville railway to Nashville and Chattanooga. This condition gave Louisville a decided advantage over Cincinnati in competition for southern trade.

By the spring of 1868 Cincinnati men felt that the construction of an independent southern railroad was a commercial necessity for the growth of this city. "Cincinnati was without a back country, and had ceased to grow. Facing her at the south was a vast empire, rich in natural resources, containing a population of 4,000,000, and penetrated by 4,000 miles of railroad converging at Chattanooga, where she could have no successful rival if the intervening rivers were bridged, and the mountains pierced by the iron way."

The subject was under constant discussion in Cincinnati. Various projects were proposed. A second attempt to build the road, at this time by private enterprise, failed. The constitution of Ohio prevented municipal corporations from taking stock in private companies, so that this plan was not feasible. It remained for Mr. Alexander E. Ferguson to point out that while Cincinnati could not give her assistance to a private company, yet the state constitution did not prevent her from building the road as an independent venture.

In the meantime Mr. Ferguson drafted a bill, which was passed by the state Legislature, enabling the city to build the road, provided the city Council declared it necessary, and provided a majority of the voters declared in favor of the construction by the city of such a road. The matter was finally decided by a special election, June 26, 1869, at which 15,435 votes were cast in favor of it and 1,500 against.

This city-owned road, the Cincinnati Southern Railway, was completed in 1880. Since then it has been an exceedingly important factor in the development of Cincinnati's manufacturing and commercial interests. For it opened up a wide range of new territory and provided prompter transportation and better shipping facilities from Cincinnati to the entire South. It is now leased to the Cincinnati, New Orleans, and Texas Pacific Railway Company, and brings to the city a large revenue. This in 1914 amounted to $1,219,050. It has cost the city about $30,000,000. But as all improvements made by the lessee company become the property of the city, the Cincinnati Southern Railway now represents a real asset to Cincinnati of about $60,000,000.

Upon the completion of this railroad a grand banquet was given at Music Hall, March 18, 1880, by the citizens of Cincinnati to nearly 1,800 Southern men. In response to the toast "The Cincinnati Southern Railway," Mr. Ferguson made the following remarks touching on the reunion of the North and South: "Although it has been built to serve the purpose of trade, it will have a higher and nobler use. As its trains pass back and forth like a shuttle in a weaver's loom, they will form a web of union between the states heretofore separated by mountain barriers. Those who have been strangers will become neighbors; new ties, not of interest alone but of affection will be created; and sectional antipathy will give place to a feeling of love for a common country and the institution founded by an illustrious ancestry."

CINCINNATI SOUTHERN RAILWAY BRIDGE OVER THE KENTUCKY RIVER

CHAPTER XVII

Present-Day Industry and Commerce

One-third of the entire population of the United States is living within 400 miles of Cincinnati. It is not distinctly a farming population, a mining population, nor a manufacturing population, but consists of all three. Within this area is produced a large proportion of the farm products of the Middle West, is mined nearly one-half of the bituminous coal of the country, and is represented practically the entire industrial field of the United States.

Thus we find in the section of the country immediately in the vicinity of Cincinnati a wide range in the character of the population and of manufacture.

The word "industry," as herein used, refers to a group or class of similar kinds of manufacture which collectively are considered one "industry" by the United States Census.

Eighty-seven per cent (231) of the 264 industries recognized by the census are located in the five states of Ohio, Indiana, Kentucky, Tennessee, and West Virginia, this section forming Cincinnati's nearest trade territory. In seventy of these industries this district alone produces more than one-eighth of the total production of the United States.

In these states live one-sixth of the people, and is produced 13.1 per cent of the manufacture of the United States. Thirty-eight per cent of these people live in cities and towns and sixty-two per cent on farms. Two-thirds of the natural gas and one-fifth of the petroleum of the United States is produced in these five states.

Here, in fact, are found all the principal raw materials entering into industries of widely varying lines. Being at the center of this great area, Cincinnati is undoubtedly the logical point at which to bring these raw materials together, and fabricate them into finished products ready for the great markets at its doors. Accessibility to markets is of equal importance to nearness of supply of raw materials. It avails nothing to produce goods unless they can be sold to advantage.

Diversity of Manufacture.—Because of these conditions, Cincinnati is a city having a great variety of manufacture: It is not dominated by any one industry. The largest, which is foundry and machine shop products, is but ten per cent of the total. Within this class is included the manufacture of machine and wood-working tools, in which Cincinnati leads the country. Of all the industries recognized by the census, Cincinnati has forty-five, the products of each of which is more than one-half million dollars per year. Nearly all these industries require skilled workers. An ample population of skilled workers is distinctive of Cincinnati.

Its great and unusual diversity of manufacture largely accounts for Cincinnati's financial stability, and for its freedom from the pinch of hard times. Experience has shown that such hard times reach it last and leave it first. A financial panic has never visited the city.

On the other hand, a city of one dominant industry is most severely crippled when hard times arrive. Failure of demand for its product may cause its single industry to suspend operations, and may throw a large proportion of the inhabitants out of work. Conditions may arise when failure of supply of even one raw material or the strike of one single class of workmen will cause such suspension. Hard times, stringent financial conditions affect such a city first and leave it last.

The mere fact that such an unusually wide variety of substantial industries exists in Cincinnati indicates an equally wide variety of available raw materials.

Cincinnati is not only a city of many kinds of industries, but it is distinctly a manufacturing rather than a jobbing or wholesale center, although its jobbing interests are of great importance.

The relative importance of jobbing or wholesale selling of merchandise is not as great in Cincinnati as it was years ago. In the early days both manufacturing and wholesale merchandising developed in this city very rapidly. The city was the one center for both in what was then the West. As other large cities grew and railroads were built, these cities became the centers for wholesale distribution of merchandise in their immediate sections, and they also developed manufacturing industries. But a manufacturer can reach markets much farther away than a wholesaler. So, while the manufacturing establishments of

Cincinnati grew in number and size, wholesalers from the newly arisen population centers were beginning to supply trade which formerly had gone to Cincinnati. In addition to this, it is believed by many who have studied the situation that some of our jobbers were not as ready as they might have been to meet the competition as it arose. Many of them, by their independent attitude, brought about by long having had no competition, made it easy for other business centers to secure their trade.

While jobbing as compared to manufacturing is not so large a business factor as formerly, because the market area for wholesale distribution has been contracted, Cincinnati's natural position as a railroad center of a very populous and prosperous part of the country makes this city a logical jobbing center. Its wholesale interests are most important, especially in coal, paper, grain, whiskey, groceries, pig iron, hardware, drygoods, office supplies, and wearing apparel.

The principal manufacturing industries, as classified and reported by the United States Census, are scheduled upon the graphic charts shown in this book. The figures are given for the "metropolitan district," which includes not only the city of Cincinnati, but adjacent communities in both Ohio and Kentucky.

CINCINNATI
VALUE OF PRODUCTS FOR PRINCIPAL INDUSTRIES
From U. S. Census, Manufactures, 1909

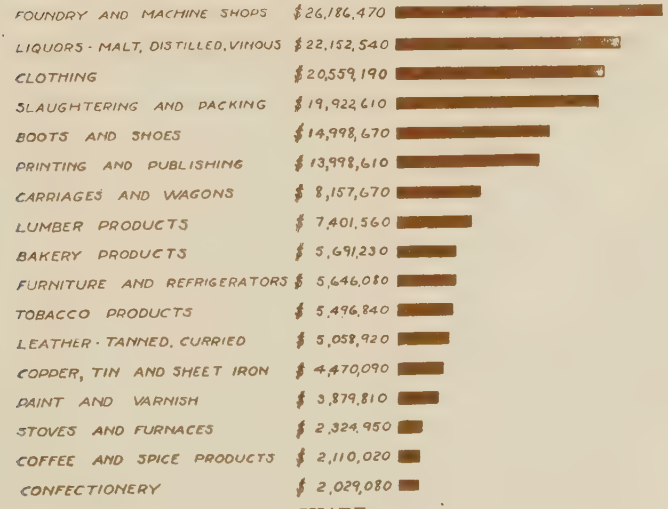

FOUNDRY AND MACHINE SHOPS $26,186,470
LIQUORS - MALT, DISTILLED, VINOUS $22,152,540
CLOTHING $20,559,190
SLAUGHTERING AND PACKING $19,922,610
BOOTS AND SHOES $14,998,670
PRINTING AND PUBLISHING $13,998,610
CARRIAGES AND WAGONS $ 8,157,670
LUMBER PRODUCTS $ 7,401,560
BAKERY PRODUCTS $ 5,691,230
FURNITURE AND REFRIGERATORS $ 5,646,080
TOBACCO PRODUCTS $ 5,496,840
LEATHER - TANNED, CURRIED $ 5,058,920
COPPER, TIN AND SHEET IRON $ 4,470,090
PAINT AND VARNISH $ 3,879,810
STOVES AND FURNACES $ 2,324,950
COFFEE AND SPICE PRODUCTS $ 2,110,020
CONFECTIONERY $ 2,029,080

CHART 7

Although the manufacture of soap is a very prominent factor in Cincinnati, the census does not furnish special figures in regard to it. At the time the census was taken only a comparatively small part of the soap business was reported from the city of Cincinnati. The figures for the district could not be given without the disclosure of operation of individual plants located just beyond the city limits.

Detailed statistics for all manufactures are as follows:

	The District.	Cincinnati Only.
Number of establishments	2,827	2,184
Persons engaged in manufacture	95,571	72,488
Proprietors and firm members	2,593	2,015
Salaried employees	12,646	10,281
Wage earners (average number)	80,332	60,192
Primary horsepower	140,254	88,597
Capital	$212,555,469	$150,254,292
Wages	41,736,010	31,100,972
Value of product	260,399,619	194,515,692

Labor.—Cincinnati is a city of skilled American labor. Of our population, 14.25 per cent are wage earners—a greater proportion than that of New York, Chicago, Boston, St. Louis, Buffalo, Baltimore, Pittsburgh, Minneapolis, and St. Paul, or San Francisco, and practically the same as that of Cleveland, with its alien population six times as great as ours.

CINCINNATI
NUMBER OF WAGE EARNERS IN PRINCIPAL INDUSTRIES
From U. S. Census, Manufactures, 1909

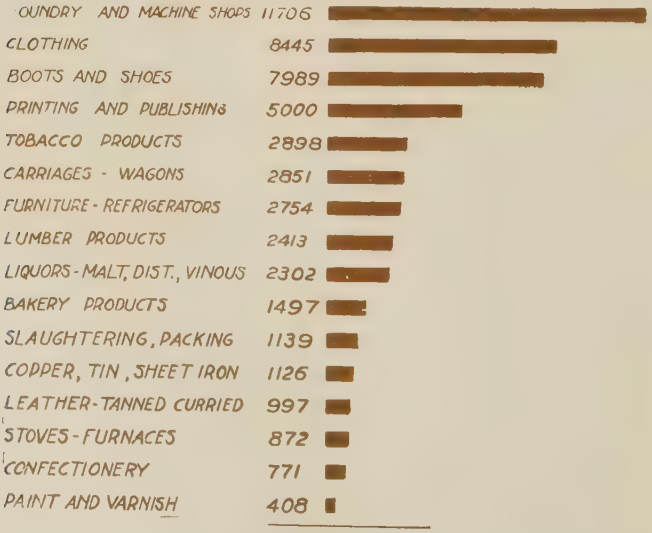


CHART 8

In the manufacturing establishments of our industrial district, 95,571 people are employed. Of these, 80,332 are classified as wage earners. The others are clerks, officers, superintendents, and executives.

Cincinnati's residents to the number of 172,373 are employed: 26,142 in trade, 26,517 in domestic service, 16,105 in clerical occupations, 14,572 in transportation, 8,871 in the professions, and 2,973 in public service.

Fuel and Power.—Another important factor contributing to the value of Cincinnati as an industrial center is the almost inexhaustible supply of the finest bituminous and smokeless coal in the world.

Because of the Ohio River, the great waterway upon which the United States Government is spending millions of dollars to convert into a canal of commerce, the cost of bringing coal to our boiler-rooms is so low as to reduce the cost of steam power to a minimum in this city.

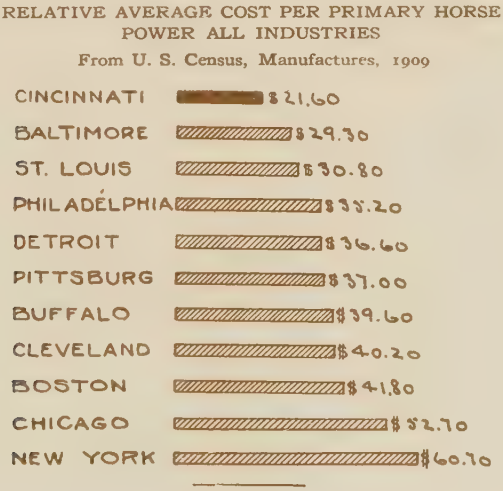


CHART 9

Chart No. 9 shows the relative approximate cost of power in Cincinnati and other cities. These figures do not include any overhead expense. They are derived by dividing the total yearly cost of fuel and rented power by the total primary (available) horse power for all manufacturing plants. While these figures are relative only, and include fuel not used for power,

they fairly show the approximate comparative cost of power for the different cities, and indicate the great advantage enjoyed by Cincinnati manufacturers.

AVERAGE RELATIVE VALUE BITUMINOUS COAL FROM DIFFERENT STATES, TAKING INTO ACCOUNT THE EFFECT OF ASH

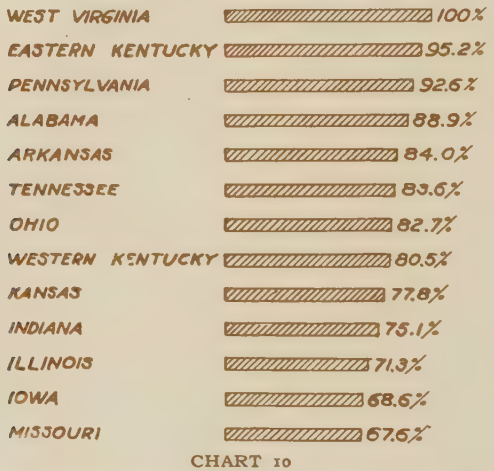


CHART 10

Compiled from 543 composite analyses by the U. S. Bureau of Mines, of samples from all coal-producing counties in the above States. The above table assumes that each 5% of ash lessens the value of the coal 6%.

Chart No. 10 shows the comparative values of bituminous and semi-bituminous coal from different fields. Practically all Cincinnati's supply comes from those that head the list—West Virginia, Eastern Kentucky, and Pennsylvania. This coal averages about 14,000 B. T. U. (British Thermal Units) in heat value.

Between thirty and forty millions of dollars have been spent by the Louisville and Nashville Railroad in the last few years, opening to us new fields in Eastern Kentucky. The Chesapeake and Ohio, Norfolk and Western, and Baltimore and Ohio Railroads are now extending their lines into the Kentucky coal fields. During the year 1915 the receipts of coal at Cincinnati were: by rail, 13,542,193 tons; by river, 4,259,584 tons. The shipments of coal were: by rail, 11,540,120; by river, 287,660 tons.

Nearly one-half of the entire production of bituminous coal in the United States is mined within 400 miles of Cincinnati.

Cincinnati, in fact, is the one point from which these high-grade coal fields are easily accessible by rail and water at low freight cost. Thus the city enjoys the advantage not only of a variety of kinds of the highest grade coal in the country, but buys this coal at such a low figure as to make possible this remarkable showing as to the cost of power.

Other factors of low power cost, besides coal of the best quality sold at low prices, are the high efficiency of power installations in Cincinnati factories and low rates for commercial electric current and natural gas in this city. The electric rates recently have been reduced. Natural gas is supplied at a net cost of from 12 to 30 cents per 1,000 cubic feet. It is very high in fuel value, running 1,100 to 1,200 B. T. U. Both electric current and natural gas are supplied at the same rates over a wide territory—far outside the 72 square miles embraced by the city.

Transportation (Railroad).—Cincinnati is the natural gateway to the South. It is served by 17 railroads, which is more than any other city along the Ohio River. Cincinnati forms the northern terminus of the Louisville and Nashville, the Cincinnati Southern (owned by the city of Cincinnati and connecting it with Chattanooga), and other railroads serving Southern territory.

An average of 111 freight trains arrive and 113 depart daily. There is received daily by rail an average of 32,494 tons of freight. An average of 129 passenger trains depart, and an equal number arrive daily.

Cincinnati is one of the most important junction points of the Baltimore and Ohio, Chesapeake and Ohio, and other railroads connecting the South with New York, Philadelphia, and other great Eastern seaports. Here also are the terminals of the New York Central, the Pennsylvania, and the Cincinnati, Hamilton, and Dayton, which carry the bulk of the trade from the North-Central States to the South.

Cincinnati is served by more railroads than any other city along the Ohio River, and within its switching limits has 1,148.5 miles of track.

Through Cincinnati moves a great volume of traffic between the North and South and between the East and West. For a large portion of this traffic between the North and South, Cincinnati is what is known as a rate-breaking point. This makes it a neutral distributing center for each region of the products

of the other, with decided advantages in freight rates over other cities located north or south of the Ohio River.

The switching limits embrace the entire Cincinnati industrial district, both in Ohio and Kentucky. They extend approximately 25 miles east and west, and about 20 miles north and south.

All Cincinnati lines have in effect reciprocal switching arrangements under which industries located on one line can receive and forward their carload business via any other line under switching charges which are reasonable. In most cases these are assumed by the railroads and not charged to the shipper.

Cincinnati shippers also enjoy the privilege of what are known as trap cars. The cars are sent by the railroads to private switches. In them shippers are allowed to load less than carload shipments for different destinations.

A package car is one which is filled with small shipments from different firms, but all consigned to the same point, to which the car is sent direct.

Over 600 of these package cars are sent from Cincinnati daily. Such service insures the delivery of less than carload shipments in practically the same time as carloads. The service is available over 13 railroads to points as far west as the Pacific Coast, east to the Atlantic Seaboard, south to the Gulf, and north to the Great Lakes.

There are 85 freight stations and team tracks, the latter being public switches from which freight may be loaded and unloaded. Warehouses with 1,033,885 square feet of floor space, 26 in number, afford ample warehousing facilities. The area of freight yards has been greatly enlarged the last few years, and further expansion is in sight.

Transportation (Water).—The Ohio River is used for freight and passenger traffic between Pittsburgh and Cincinnati and Louisville and Cincinnati and intervening points. The bulk of the river tonnage is afforded by coal. About 2,000,000 tons reach Cincinnati each year from Pennsylvania and West Virginia fields.

For the further development of this commerce the United States Government is now at work spending immense sums of money on the Ohio River, building a series of locks and dams. When completed, this system of river improvement will assure a navigable stage of water throughout the year. Then will

Cincinnatians be in position to construct water terminals connecting with railroads. When the Mississippi is also provided with an all-the-year navigable stage of water, Cincinnati should be able to benefit greatly indeed. It may then take full advantage of the development of trade expected from the construction of the Panama Canal.

FERNBANK DAM IN OHIO RIVER

Distribution Facilities.—Cincinnati is one of the largest distribution centers. It is situated within a few miles of the center of population of the United States (which is fifty miles away, in Southern Indiana). More points can be reached from Cincinnati at lower transportation cost than from any other city of the whole country. This is true not only for freight, but for express or parcel post shipments.

The population living within various radii is approximately as follows:

Within 100 miles, 2,800,000.	Within 400 miles, 31,000,000
Within 200 miles, 8,700,000.	Within 500 miles, 43,000,000
Within 300 miles, 20,900,000.	Within 600 miles, 63,000,000

When we consider that the entire population of Germany only reaches about this latter figure, we can realize of what an enormous population Cincinnati is the natural center.

The Future.—With all these industrial advantages, why should not Cincinnati take a more prominent place in the cities of the country? What is needed?

It needs better freight terminal facilities. Freight now takes too long to be delivered after reaching the city. It also takes it too long to start on its journey after being shipped.

It needs a belt line connecting all railroads to facilitate quick transportation from one railroad to another, and to open up new areas to industrial development, and thus make available new factory sites near where people live. If this is done it will make available large districts outside of the area subject to overflow.

It needs water terminals, connected with rail, with adequate transhipment facilities.

It needs a rapid transit system connecting the suburbs with each other and with the city, so that workmen may go to and from their work more quickly, and, by selecting homes in the suburbs, live under better conditions.

It needs a greater willingness upon the part of our people to invest their money, whether saved or inherited, in business enterprises, rather than in low interest-bearing government, county, and municipal bonds. Capital is the very fundamental element which makes business possible. The inhabitants of Cincinnati, as compared either with East or West, are too conservative in their investment of savings.

But if the city had all these things and its people were not what they should be, the city would not become greater, nor take its true position in the growth of the country. With all these things attained, and the finest equipped factories and business establishments in the world, Cincinnati would remain a second rate city unless it had the right kind of men directing and working in its factories, business houses, and public offices.

Above all else, the citizens must be trained to do their work well. More of Cincinnati workmen must be skilled workmen. Its executives must be first-class executives. Its business men must be up with the times. They must be progressive men, intelligent, high-minded men, willing to take the needed steps forward. The world moves. Things change. Business and political methods are different from what they used to be. Large-hearted, public-spirited men are needed at the head of the movements for city improvement. Self-interest is right for home comfort. But for city improvement, a large willingness to devote time and money to the whole city's needs is required.

If our factories are to grow in number and size they must be operated so as to be profitable to their owners, otherwise money cannot be secured for expansion, or the business even maintained and employment provided for the workers. To be

profitable, a business needs a good brain at its head and willing hands everywhere. The executives must be alive to modern manufacturing and selling methods; they must know the methods of their competitors. They must be able to know, by proper accounting methods, what their own business is costing and what profit it is making. They must treat their employees fairly. Employees must render good services for their wages.

Other communities by all possible means are endeavoring to educate their people to become strong of body, with skillful hands and keen minds, wise, capable, and not only willing, but ambitious to do their best.

If Cincinnati is to meet this competition, its people must continue to see to it that they, too, develop the highest type of men and women. The greatest fundamental influence to this end is the Cincinnati public schools. It is the plain duty of every pupil in them to do his very best, and to make the most of the great and increasing opportunities that the public schools offer. It is the plain duty of all men and women to do all in their power to offer their help and cooperation.

What a fine thing it would be for Cincinnati if every person in the city, after securing the best possible preparation for the work he is to do, would begin at once to *do his very best*, whatever his job; if he would understand this one simple secret of success, *that the only way to deserve promotion of any sort is, first of all, to do the work at hand as well as it can possibly be done*, and would further grasp this great principle, *that it is impossible to fit one's self for a better occupation by being indifferent to the present job!*

The future of Cincinnati, the welfare, the happiness, the comfort, the incomes of its citizens largely depend upon the success and growth of its business. Business of some kind or other is the basis of all employment. And employment, with its consequent pay and of promised comfort, depends by far to the greatest extent upon the personal equation—the character of the individuals of the city.

CHAPTER XVIII

Civic and Commercial Organizations

Centralized community organization for the development of different phases of civic activity is the product of very recent years. Formerly the officials of the community were depended upon almost entirely to determine what should be done, how it should be done, and then to carry out their own plans. Public interest became aroused only when some great wrong was about to be, or had been, inflicted upon the public by individual officials or by the municipal authority; or perhaps when some undertaking of most unusual importance was under consideration. Under such circumstances cooperative action occasionally did take place, and public opinion then found expression through community pressure upon public officials. But once the object of the activity had been attained or the effort had failed, associated action was over, and the people who had joined in it once more acted as a number of individuals until another crisis occurred, when the process was repeated.

It is a matter of common knowledge that until quite recent years our American cities were notoriously ill governed. Great waste, and even theft of public funds, widespread inefficiency, and utmost disregard of public welfare were common and taken as a matter of course. Taxes collected from the people at large were directed to the private purses of favored ones. Privilege alone was allowed consideration. And so strongly entrenched were those who directed this extravagant disregard of public rights that few citizens dared even to voice their protests.

As the people gradually became aware not only that their municipal affairs were being grossly mismanaged, but that the situation was growing worse instead of better, they at last gathered courage in the hope of good results from cooperation.

At first small groups of citizens, acting together here and there, succeeded in gaining certain ends. Civic activity became an important function of certain special business organizations.

No longer does any one raise any question as to whether the Chamber of Commerce, for instance, should or should not interest itself in the solution of the transit problem of Cincinnati. Such interest in the larger affairs of the city government is taken as a matter of course. Temporary organizations formed for specific local purposes became permanent. As neighborhood "welfare" or "improvement" associations, they undertook to study local conditions and to strive for those things that were felt to be desirable and necessary.

It is a striking thing that, with the development of civic activity in organizations of many kinds, and great in number, municipal government has become cleaner, more efficient, and more considerate of public welfare. This movement has not been a local one only for Cincinnati. It has become national in its scope.

Herbert Spencer has said: "The man who, expending his energies wholly on private affairs, refuses to take trouble about public affairs, pluming himself on his wisdom in minding his own business, is blind to the fact that his own business is made possible only by maintenance of a healthy social state, and that he loses all around by defective governmental arrangements. Where there are many like-minded with himself, heavy penalties fall on the community at large, and, among others, on those who have done everything for self and nothing for society."

The business man has come to realize the truth of this philosophy. He sees that he has a very vital interest in the community life of the city, and that civic as well as commercial subjects should receive the attention of business men. The popular idea a few generations ago was that public affairs were none of the business men's business. The officeholders and professional politicians were looking after the city's affairs; "Hands off!" was the notice posted to all others.

But public welfare and the welfare of business are most vitally related. No longer is it questioned that business and civic factors have direct bearing upon each other. Employment and wages are dependent upon business. Business is largely dependent upon the conditions under which it is carried on. The employee is interested in the conditions under which he must live. He should be interested also in the success of the employer; for if employers are not sufficiently successful, they cannot give employment to employees. The employer is con-

cerned with civic problems, because these problems vitally affect the facilities for doing business, and at times even the possibility of doing business at all. The health, happiness, education, and general welfare of employees are all subjects that vitally affect the employer. The necessity of good government, of attractive surroundings, and of intelligent regard for the comfort, recreation, and general welfare of the public are now being recognized as essential to the growth and general prosperity of any city.

The live business man these days, therefore, is interested in community welfare and all its problems—the public health, schools, streets, and street lighting, transportation, police protection, recreation, hospitals, and the many other functions of the modern city.

This interest, which is rapidly becoming manifested by people in all walks of life, has given rise to civic activity upon the part of many organizations. Some of these organizations devote their entire energies to civic matters. Others, such as the Cincinnati Chamber of Commerce, are, primarily, business organizations. But even these special organizations, recognizing the close relation between business and community welfare are found to be in the forefront of civic activity. When any civic activity is to be undertaken, the Chamber of Commerce is one that naturally takes a leading part.

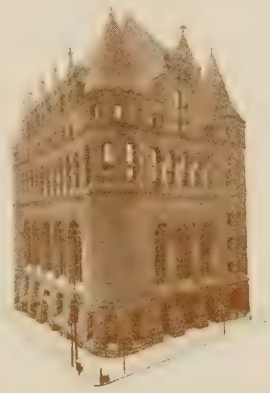
Cincinnati Chamber of Commerce. The Cincinnati Chamber of Commerce is the great business organization of Cincinnati. It has about 3,000 members, who represent practically the entire local commercial and professional field.

The Chamber of Commerce is one of the oldest organizations in the city. It was established in 1839. This association of business men has a long and honorable record for the things it has accomplished for Cincinnati and in the interests of business.

Such terms as "efficiency" and "scientific management" have recently appeared in our vocabulary. It is obvious that this tendency to efficiency in business should affect the methods not only of business or of factory, but also of voluntary organizations. Commercial associations are adopting the efficiency idea in the conduct of their activities.

This new kind of organization is typified in the Cincinnati Chamber of Commerce. To-day, instead of the work being done through committees of members, able to give only their spare time to the subjects under discussion, a different plan is

followed. In order that careful investigation in any subject may be made and proper consideration given to each side of each subject, a staff of experts in special lines has been established. Their services are at the command of the various committees composed of members of the Chamber of Commerce.



Chamber of Commerce building which stood on site of Union Central Building.

Thus by bringing together in one organization over 3,000 men from many walks of life, there has been developed a great central organization which is constantly increasing in value and influence in the community. As small and isolated organizations become subsidiary groups in this large central body, wasteful duplication of effort is eliminated, and they secure influence which formerly was lacking.

Careful consideration of the big community problems and a policy of deliberate but firm action distinguishes the Cincinnati Chamber of Commerce. Questions of all sorts affecting business and community interests are here considered. Various sorts of service are rendered, from the manifold activities of the civic and industrial department and the securing of conventions, to the official weighing and grading of hay and grain for the city of Cincinnati.

Union Central Building, highest west of New York

The Chamber of Commerce used to occupy its own building at the southwest corner of Fourth and Vine Streets. This was a most beautiful Gothic structure, designed by Richardson, the famous architect. It was destroyed by fire in 1911. The Chamber has an equity of $600,000 in the site upon which this building stood, and where the Union Central Building now stands. In this thirty-four-story building, opened in 1913, the Chamber of Commerce now has its quarters. The second and third floors are thus occupied. Here is to be found one of the few "exchanges" conducted by Chambers of

Commerce; here are located the executive offices and the many departments.

The exchange hall is the meeting place for business men. Here is posted information of various sorts—news bulletins, quotations of stock exchanges, and so forth. Here the members of the Chamber come for general meetings. Here they buy and sell. At present the principal commodities handled are grain and hay. Formerly many other articles were dealt in, but with the advent of the telephone and other modern instruments of business, the barter on the exchange has been limited practically to grain and hay, commodities that are bought by sample. The exchange is not a stock exchange. Actual transactions only take place. There is no dealing in margins or futures or in stocks or bonds.

The many activities of the great organization are centered in 13 departments as follows:

Auditing and Purchasing Department.
Civic and Industrial Department.
Convention and Publicity Department.
Exchange Hall.
Foreign Trade Department.
Inspection Department.
Legal Department.
Membership Department.
Retail Merchants' Department.
Statistical Department.
Trade Expansion Department.
Traffic Department.
Weighing Department.

There are many subsidiary and several affiliated organizations. The activities include perhaps a wider range than those of any other Chamber of Commerce in the country. Hardly any definite forward movement is made without the cooperation of this institution. Its influence upon commerce and industry is more than local, and indeed for many years it has been felt throughout the country.

Welfare Associations, Federated Improvement Association. The local "welfare" or "improvement" association movement has been developed to a remarkable degree in certain American cities, Cincinnati among them. Cincinnati is really a union of a great many separate communities which only a few

years ago were separate villages or towns. The limits of many of them are still plainly marked by topography or other natural conditions.

These welfare associations, above forty in number, vary in size from a few score to over a thousand members, the total membership being about ten thousand. These associations have been able, through concerted action on the part of their members, to secure many valuable improvements for their respective communities. Their value to the city is admitted. In 1907 these separate associations joined their efforts in the Federated Improvement Associations, which is composed of three delegates from each of the affiliated local welfare organizations.

Welfare associations are most diligent and efficient in looking after the interests of their respective sections of the city. But often intense desire by a local association for some local improvement may occasionally demand and even secure things that are not for the whole public welfare. The activities of each association are not contingent upon the sanction of the others, nor even upon the approval of the Federation. For the Federation is a conference of delegates from the various affiliated organizations, and has no control over the activities of the welfare associations.

As a rule, these welfare associations take action in civic matters only after a committee has looked into the situation, and has made recommendations based upon its investigations. This is a wise method, as the average man has little opportunity to investigate for himself, and action without investigation is often untimely. The caution here would be to point out the necessity upon the part of the committees of getting at the full facts, especially when technical questions are involved, or the situation is one touching complicated functions of municipal government.

The Federated Improvement Associations has been identified with many movements for civic betterment. Among these might be mentioned the following: The extension of public playgrounds and athletic fields; the introduction of instruction in civics in the public schools; the installation of sanitary drinking fountains in the streets; rapid transit; charter; social legislation, such as the establishment of the Court of Domestic Relations; settlement of the strike of street railway employees; the promotion of school gardening: the city planning bill.

The Business Men's Club.- The Business Men's Club occupies a fine clubhouse at Ninth and Race Streets. This club is essentially social, but has civic activities. The organization has about 1,500 members. It has elaborate club facilities in its handsome building, and carries on important work for the city through its many committees. It has manifested particular interest in the rapid transit problem, legislation, both city and state, questions of education, safety, and other civic matters.

The Cincinnati Woman's Club.—The Cincinnati Woman's Club is a highly important part of the city life. It was organized in 1894 for the purpose of "creating an organized center of thought and action among women for the promotion of social, educational, literary, and artistic growth, and whatever relates to the best interests of the city." The club actively participates in those civic matters relating to the whole community in which women should be especially interested. It has its own building and auditorium situated at Oak and May Streets, Walnut Hills.

The club is divided into six departments and eleven study circles. Each member is urged to join some section in which she is most interested.

The Woman's Club has been a valuable influence for civic betterment in the community. The club established the first vacation school in the city. It initiated and fostered the playground and smoke abatement movements in Cincinnati. The first public playground west of the Alleghenies was thus established on Pearl Street. Through its influence, a matron was appointed in the County Jail. It was the pioneer in introducing school gardens into Cincinnati. Its aid has been of particular value in such matters as the establishment of the school penny lunch, the war on tenements and billboards, the clean-up campaigns, the safe and sane Fourth of July idea, and the fight against tuberculosis.

While the keynote of the Cincinnati Woman's Club life in the past has been self-culture, that of the present is far more the application of self-culture to community betterment.

The City Club.—The City Club of Cincinnati holds weekly luncheons throughout most of the year. Upon such occasions a wide range of civic subjects are discussed. It is the practice of the club, as often as possible, to have both sides of a question presented.

The constitution of the club says: "Its object shall be to bring together frequently men who believe in the complete separation of national politics from the administration of all local public affairs, in order that by friendly acquaintance, exchange of views, and united activities, intelligent and effective cooperation in the work for good government in Cincinnati and Hamilton County may be secured."

The meetings of the club are marked by the most frank discussion, and the custom of questioning speakers after their addresses.

The City Club has been a very important factor in the forward movement in municipal affairs. It has always stood for clean government and municipal reform. It has been of great influence in raising the civic ideals of the people of Cincinnati.

The Bureau of Municipal Research.—The Bureau of Municipal Research is a voluntary association, supported by private subscriptions. Its purpose is to study problems of government and to publish facts in regard to various activities of the city. The work of this bureau has been of great importance, especially in connection with municipal accounting, extension of municipal social service, specifications for street paving, municipal purchasing, and budget making.

The Woman's City Club.—The Woman's City Club of Cincinnati was organized in 1915. Its membership, which is not limited, is now about 1,500 members. A civic director is employed, and the club proposes to study civic problems and exert its influence toward civic betterment. Its city planning committee was largely instrumental in securing city planning legislation in 1915.

Other Organizations.—There are many other organizations which take a greater or less interest in civic affairs. Among them may be mentioned the Social Workers' Club, the union labor organizations, the Taxpayers' Association, the Cincinnati Real Estate Exchange, the Commercial Club, the Advertisers' Club, and many church organizations.

Influence Upon Community Life.—The influence of these various organizations upon the community life of the city has been most important. Hardly one of these can fairly be given entire credit for the accomplishment of any one important general civic undertaking, for the reason that there is greater or

less cooperation between them. This does not mean that all invariably endorse the same thing, for they do not. But several at least will usually be found acting together.

While the work of these organizations frequently involves much unfortunate duplication of effort and occasional action at cross purposes, the members of each group are becoming posted as to civic affairs. As people become better informed in regard to their community life they become more capable of discussing civic affairs intelligently, and of moulding public opinion along constructive lines. Thus not only have these civic and commercial organizations secured a vast number of small improvements and some very important large ones, but they have served to raise the general standard of citizenship in Cincinnati

CHAPTER XIX

Public Utilities

The one essential quality of a public utility is that it is engaged in rendering a service which is necessary for, or at least of great convenience to, a large number of people within the community served by it. It does not consist in using the streets or in being a monopoly. The essential is useful public service, needed regularly, whether supplied by an individual, firm, corporation, or the municipality itself.

Public market houses and railways which use only private rights of way are examples of public utilities which do not occupy the streets; so that the use of streets and public highways is not an essential characteristic of a public utility. However, this is quite usually a normal attribute.

Characteristics.—Monopoly is often spoken of as a characteristic of a public utility. It is not necessarily so; for in some cities there are two or more competing street railroad systems or competing telephone or electric light companies. The laws of Ohio, as of most states, forbid the granting of exclusive franchises. As a rule, however, a public utility has the practical monopoly in rendering its particular class of service to the particular community in which it is located. This is the case with every existing public utility in Cincinnati. The city has but one street railroad system, one telephone system, one water works, and one company for furnishing electricity and gas.

Another characteristic frequently belonging to public utilities is the power of eminent domain; that is, the power to take private property without the consent of the owner by paying as compensation therefor a sum fixed by the courts. This again is not necessarily an attribute of all utilities, as witnessed by the fact that in Ohio, for instance, steam railroads have such power of eminent domain, but street railroads have no such rights. Except for the power houses, the ordinary street-car roads occupy streets. They do not need the power to condemn private property or to obtain private rights of way.

Classifications.—Utilities may be classified as local and non-local. Local utilities are those which predominantly serve one community; as, for instance, the Cincinnati Traction Company system serves the city of Cincinnati. The service of any utility is seldom completely confined to the limits of one city. For instance, the Cincinnati Traction Company serves Norwood as well as Cincinnati. But the main or predominant field of a local public utility is a single community. The examples of local public utilities in Cincinnati are the street railroad system, the Union Gas & Electric Company's system, the Cincinnati and Suburban Bell Telephone Company's system, and the Cincinnati Water Works.

A non-local utility is designed chiefly to provide a means of transportation or communication between or among two or more communities. Typical examples are the steam railroads, the interurban railroads, the telegraphs, and the long distance telephones.

Utilities may also be classified according to ownership and operation. A utility may be both owned and operated by a corporation, as is the case with the street railroad system, the gas and electric system, and the telephone system in Cincinnati, a condition known as private ownership and operation; or it may be owned by the community and operated by a company, as is the case with the Cincinnati Southern Railroad, which is owned by the city of Cincinnati and leased to and operated by the Cincinnati, New Orleans and Texas Pacific Railroad Company; or it may be both owned and operated by the community, as is the case with the Cincinnati Water Works.

A utility may charge for the service which it renders, or the service may be rendered free. For instance, properly speaking, the sewer system of a city is a public utility. Practically, all sewer systems in the United States are publicly owned, and, as a rule, sewerage service is furnished free of charge, as is the case in Cincinnati. There are examples, however, of sewer systems which make a charge against each piece of property served. The streets are, properly speaking, public utilities. Considerable portions of the present streets of Cincinnati were at one time parts of toll roads on which a charge was made. Toll roads have been universally abandoned within cities, so that streets represent a form of public utility universally owned and operated by the community, and practically free of charge.

The city of Cincinnati, however, does, under the present laws of Ohio, collect fees for the use of streets by horse-drawn vehicles; and the state of Ohio collects fees for the use of streets and roads in Ohio by motor-drawn vehicles. As a general rule, public utilities, whether publicly or privately owned, make a charge for their services, which in the case of transportation companies are usually called fares, and in the case of other companies rates or charges.

It is possible for a public utility to be owned and operated by a private individual or a partnership; but, owing to the large amount of money that is needed to complete and extend a public utility, privately owned utilities are now almost universally in the hands of companies or corporations.

Public Nature of Public Utilities.—Whether publicly or privately owned, a public utility is engaged in performing a public or governmental service. The word "public" in "public utility" or "public service corporation" means what it says. A street, for instance, is obviously engaged in rendering a public service; namely, the furnishing of a public means of transportation from one portion of a city to another. Similarly, the street railroad on the street, though privately owned, is engaged in performing a public service; namely, the same service of furnishing a public means of transportation from one portion of the city to another. The public nature of the street railroad system results from the fact that it is furnishing a service public or governmental in its nature; and this alone justifies the permission given public utilities. The obligation to the public of a privately owned utility does not differ substantially from the obligation to the public of a publicly owned utility. The chief difference comes in the obligation of the public to the utility. Hence, if a utility is privately owned, private moneys or capital have been invested in it; and, according to the laws and constitution of the states and United States, this private capital is entitled to protection, so that the public may not impose upon the privately owned utility such obligations as will destroy this private capital. The public's control over the privately owned utility is complete, except as limited by contract, or as limited by this constitutional obligation not to exercise the control in such a way as seriously to impair or entirely destroy the value of the private capital honestly and actually invested in the public service.

Service and Fares.—Service and fares are the two matters in which the people of a community are most interested. Every public utility is under obligation to furnish the community in which it is located with sufficient and adequate service, service of such quantity and quality as answers to the needs of the community. Included in this matter of service is not merely adequacy of service in the field already covered by the plant of the utility, but also the duty to serve the whole community by extending the plant into those portions of the community not already served, which, by reason of present and prospective growth in population, may reasonably ask for the extension of the service.

As regards fares, rates, and charges, the general principle is that these must be reasonable; that is, that they may be high enough to pay the cost of operating the utility at a reasonable profit to the owner, but may not be so high as to impair the welfare of the community or furnish unreasonable profit to the owner.

Public Control.—The vital importance to the health, safety, prosperity, and welfare of the community of good public utility service at reasonable prices cannot be overstated. It is the modern public utilities which make urban communities possible. And it is the adequacy and cheapness of the service of these utilities which determine the growth, health, and prosperity of these communities. Public safety is dependent upon the lighting of the streets; the cost and efficiency of all activities, business and social, are vitally affected by the facilities for lighting and heating buildings. The health of suburban life is unattainable without adequate transportation facilities. The cost of living is affected by the cost of these services. The social importance of the adequacy and cost of public utility service is evident.

These considerations show the necessity of public control over rates and service. This control may be exercised by state administrative or by legislative bodies, such as a state Public Utilities Commission, or by state legislature, or by local administrative public service. Just where the control is lodged over any particular utility in any community is simply dependent upon the provisions of the laws governing that community. For instance, at the present time the control over service and rates rendered by the gas and electric system of Cincinnati is divided between the city Council, the Director of Public Service of Cincinnati, and the Public Utilities Commission of Ohio.

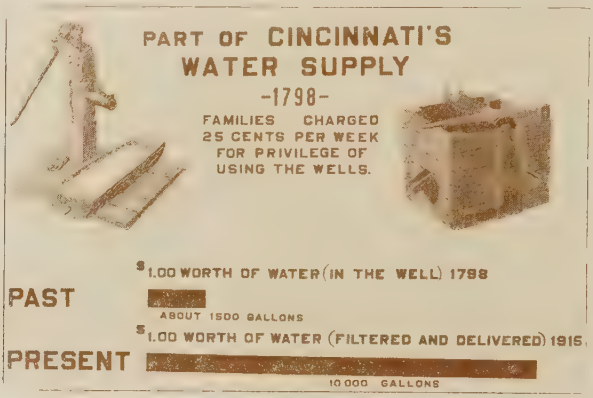
The relative advantages of state or local control is a subject that has aroused much discussion, into the merits of which there is no need to enter here.

Franchises.—Often the rates to be charged, the quality or quantity of service rendered, and the method and extent of public control are expressly set forth in a franchise. The franchise is granted to a corporation to use the streets for a definite utility. Conceivably, a franchise may contain nothing except the bare permission to use the streets. There are examples of such franchises. As a rule, however, the public attaches to this permission certain conditions as to rates, quantity and quality of service, and method and extent of public control; so that many of the rights and obligations of the utility to the public and of the public to the utility are definitely and expressly fixed in the franchise. A franchise, however, does not enforce itself. And no matter how detailed its provisions, some form of public control or supervision is necessary to enforce it. The courts have declared that franchises have much the legal force and effect of a contract, and the community is as bound to adhere to the terms of the franchise as is the utility. For instance, if a franchise provides for a five-cent fare for twenty years, the community may not force a lower fare during this twenty years. A franchise, however, seldom contains such perfection of detail that its express language solves all questions of rates and service that may arise during its life; so there practically always remains a field for public control outside of the franchise; that is, upon those questions which are not expressly answered by the language of the franchise.

There exist many different kinds of franchises. They might be classified as follows:

1. Simple franchise without terms either as to rates or time limitation.
2. Limited only as to time.
3. Limited only as to terms.
4. Limited both as to time and terms.
5. Indeterminate, that is, without definite period, but with provisions for recognizing the right of fair return on capital invested, the right of the municipality or state to regulate all terms and conditions, and the right of the municipality to purchase at an agreed valuation or a valuation fixed by an agreed method.

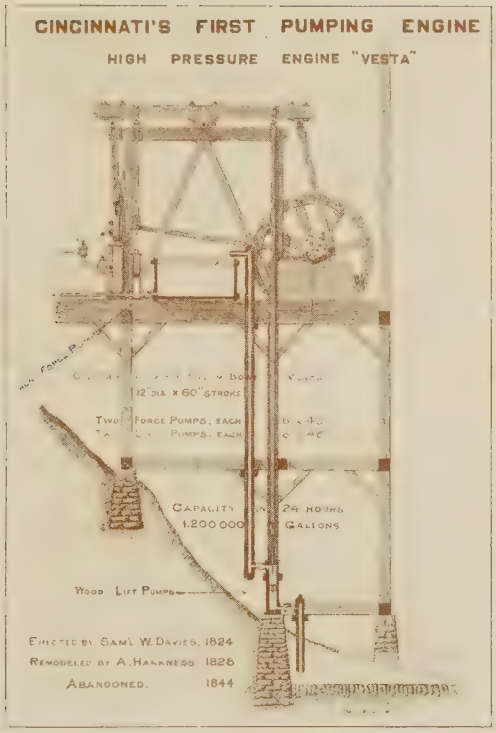
A short description of the various utilities operating in Cincinnati will now be given, with reference to the provisions of their franchises regarding rates, service, and public control.



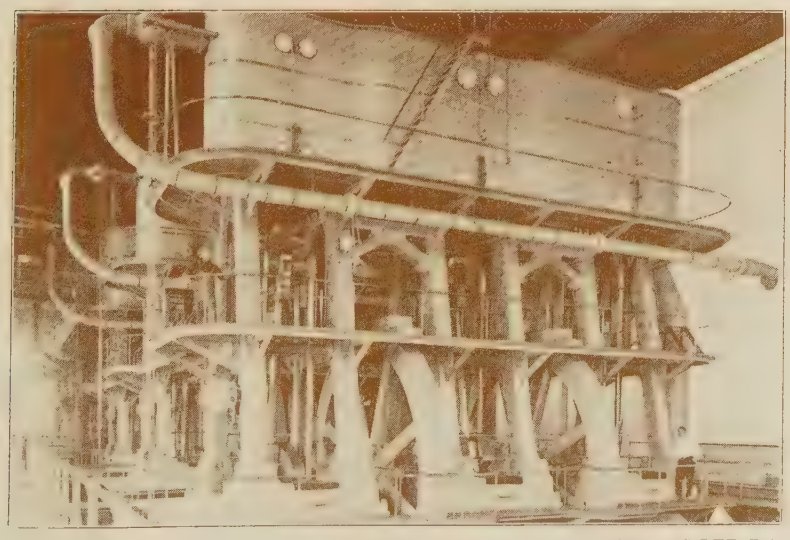
Water Works.—People are apt to think of water works as one kind of public utility universally and necessarily operated by the public. As a matter of fact, however, many water works, including those of many large cities, are still privately owned and operated.

The Cincinnati Water Works was originally so owned and operated under a franchise granted in 1817. The electors of the city voted three successive times adversely to the purchase of the plant before a favorable vote was finally obtained, in 1837, since which time the water utility has been owned and operated by the city. It is entirely self-sustaining, securing all its revenue from its sale of water, and none from taxes. According to the present statutes, the water works is under the management and supervision of the Director of Public Service, who decides upon the rates of charges, and also decides questions of service; though, like every other public utility, the Cincinnati Water Works, even though municipally owned, will be prevented by the courts from discriminating in service or from failing to render good service. The State of Ohio does not attempt any administrative supervision of municipally owned utilities.

Street Railroads.—The system of street railroads in Cincinnati is privately owned by the Cincinnati Street Railway Company. In 1901 the whole system was leased to the Cin-



CINCINNATI'S FIRST WATER WORKS PUMPING ENGINE



LOW SERVICE PUMP, MAIN STATION, SUPPLIES 25,000,000 GALLONS PER DAY

cinnati Traction Company, which has operated it ever since. The Cincinnati Street Railway Company was a consolidation of numerous separate street railroad corporations which owned different parts of the system. One or more of these companies were in turn consolidations of previous companies. The franchises of all the original companies which now form the consolidated Cincinnati Street Railway Company were given by the city at various times from 1859 to 1896. These franchises were all merged and consolidated into a single franchise, given in 1896, under the provisions of what is known as the Rogers Law.

ONE OF CINCINNATI'S HORSE CARS, 1885

The Rogers Law franchise is for a term of 50 years from 1896. The rate of fare, percentage of gross receipts paid to the city, transfer system, and other terms and conditions, however, were fixed for 20 years only. At the end of these years, which falls in 1916, the city Council will have the power to change the rate of fare, transfer system, and other terms and conditions of the franchise, in accordance with the cost to the company of rendering service in 1916. The rates of fare, transfer system, and other terms and conditions fixed in 1916 will be for a 15-year period ending in 1931, when the Council will again have the right to make changes. The franchise provides that if the company is dissatisfied with the changes made by Council in 1916 and 1931, it shall have a right to file a suit in court to test the reasonableness and justice of the action of Council.

As regards service, the franchise provides that the company shall run cars "as frequently as the convenience of the public may require." The Director of Public Service has power to

enforce this requirement, and also has general supervision over the character and condition of the tracks, rolling stock, and other physical equipment. As regards extensions into new territory, the franchise is silent. But the state law permits Council to order reasonable extensions subject to appeal to the state Public Utilities Commission.

In the case of utilities such as gas, electricity, and water, the establishment and enforcement of standards of good service are comparatively simple. In the first place, the consumer is entitled to the flow of current of the product whenever he so desires. In the second place, the quality or quantity thereof can be subjected to certain definite tests and measured by accurate scientific apparatus. The questions involved in street railway service are more complicated, due to variations in the demand for the service. At certain times of day, known as the regular hours, the demand is light. The problem is to strike a fair balance between the right, on the one hand, of the car rider to obtain service without unreasonably long waits, and the right, on the other hand, of the operator to be freed from the expense of operating an unreasonable quantity of empty seats. At certain other times of day, known as the rush hours, the demand is heavy and concentrated. The problem then presented is that of running sufficient cars to prevent the discomfort of overcrowding. Attempts have been made to establish standards of adequate rush-hour service, ranging from seating capacity plus fifteen per cent of seating capacity. By means of careful traffic counts, that is, counts of the actual number of persons using the different routes at the different periods of the day, it is generally possible to apply and enforce some standard that may be adopted by the supervising municipal authorities. In 1912 an exhaustive traffic survey was made of the demand for a supply of street railroad service in Cincinnati. The report of this survey is known as the Harris report. If continuously and intelligently used and kept up to date, it would furnish an effective basis for testing the adequacy of the street car service.

THE CABLE CAR AT FOUNTAIN SQUARE

Gas.—The artificial gas franchise, known as the "Conover Contract," dates from 1841, and is now owned, with plant, by the Cincinnati Gas & Electric Company. The company has leased the franchise and the plant to the Union Gas & Electric Company, which now operates it. The term of the franchise is peculiar, reading "twenty-five years from the date thereof and thereafter until the same shall be purchased by the city Council of Cincinnati as hereinafter provided." The privilege of purchase referred to provides that the city may purchase the plant at any time after 25 years (that is, after 1866) at a price and compensation "ascertained by five disinterested persons, two of whom shall be selected by the Council and two by said Conover, his associates, their heirs, assigns, or successors, and the fifth by the four others selected or chosen." The franchise for natural gas was granted in 1905 to the Cincinnati Gas & Electric Company for a period of twenty-five years, with a similar privilege of purchase by the city.

The rates for gas are not fixed in the franchise ordinance itself, but under the authority of a state statute they may be fixed from time to time by the city Council. The city Council may change these rates as often as it likes; but may agree to a fixed term not exceeding ten years. The custom has been to fix the rates for ten years at a time. They were last fixed early in 1906; so that they are again subject to change by Council in 1916. When the company is dissatisfied with rates fixed by Council, it can appeal to the Ohio State Public Utilities Commission, and either the city or the company may appeal from the decision of the Commission to the Supreme Court of Ohio.

The natural gas franchise provides a certain standard of service, expressed in British Thermal Units, and indicating the value of the gas. The language of the franchise is such as to fairly warrant the conclusion that the company is obligated to supply the whole city, though doubtless the courts would refuse to enforce a demand for an unreasonable extension of service. State law authorizes the city Council to order reasonable extensions, subject to appeal by the company to the Ohio Public Utilities Commission.

Control over the enforcement of the franchise and obligations of the company is, as in the case of all other public utilities, within the jurisdiction of the Director of Public Service. Such obligations may also be enforced in judicial proceedings brought

by the City Solicitor; or, when he refuses to act, by any taxpayer of the city. The Ohio Public Utilities Commission also has authority to prevent discrimination in rates between the different consumers, and to enforce adequate service.

Electricity.—Between 1882 and 1901 several companies supplying electricity operated under franchises and permits from the city. In 1901 all these companies were absorbed by the Cincinnati Gas, Light, and Coke Company, which later became the Cincinnati Gas and Electric Company, the company which now owns both the gas and electric plants and the franchises. The only one of the said electric franchises which has not expired by limitation was that granted in 1893 for twenty-five years "and thereafter" until the city elects to purchase both the gas and electric plants. The city's privilege of purchasing the electric plant is similar to the above described privilege concerning the gas plant. The electric plant and franchises were in 1901 leased to the Union Gas and Electric Company, which now operates them.

As in the case of gas, rates for electric service are not fixed in the franchise. They are fixed by ordinance of Council, which may change them from time to time or may fix them for definite periods not exceeding 10 years each. Such action of Council may be appealed from by the company to the State Public Utilities Commission. The last 10-year period expired in 1915, at which time Council passed an ordinance revising the electric rates. The new rates were not satisfactory to the Union Gas and Electric Company. The company made an appeal to the Public Utilities Commission of Ohio; under the law they were also made subject to a referendum vote of the people at the election in November, 1915. The vote was in favor of the ordinance.

The electric lighting of the streets is performed under a contract between the city and the Union Gas & Electric Company. Such contracts may not exceed ten years in duration. The practice in Cincinnati has been to contract for the full ten years at a time. The present contract will expire in 1922.

Public control of electric service is administered by the same authorities as above described in the case of gas. The power to order extensions of service rests in the same authorities, and is subject to the same restrictions as already described relative to gas service.

Telephones.—The legal situation of the telephone utility is somewhat complicated. For overhead telephone construction, that is, poles and wires strung above ground, the consent of the city is not required. The franchise comes exclusively from the state. For underground construction, that is, wires in conduits,

TELEPHONE WIRES BEING LAID NEXT TO LOT LINES TO AVOID TEARING UP STREET. PLEASANT RIDGE, 1915

the consent of the city is required. There is no definite term or limit to the telephone company's franchise. There are no ordinances or measures of the city which prescribe any terms or conditions as to rates or service. All such questions are administered by the state authorities.

Telegraph.—The rights of the telegraph companies to the use of the city's streets come from the state, and not from the city. The city of Cincinnati has some slight control over the location of telegraph posts and wires. But, in general, the control and supervision of location, service, and rates is in state and national authorities.

Terminal Utilities.—Among public utilities none is more important than that of terminals for steam and interurban railroads entering the city. The control of terminals, constituting control of the facilities for entering and leaving the city, obviously carries the control over the destiny and prosperity of the city. The only terminal utility now operating in Cincinnati is the Central Union Depot and Terminal Company. This owns and operates the Central Union Depot and tracks leading to it. It furnishes terminal service to steam railroads exclusively. The municipality itself has very slight control over the location, charges, or service of steam railroads or steam railroad terminals, these being mainly under the control of state and national authorities.

Certain of the interurban railways serving Cincinnati do not enter the city, but terminate at its boundaries. Others enter for a short distance over private right of way. The remainder come over the tracks of the Cincinnati Street Railway Company, by virtue of contracts between the interurban companies and the Cincinnati Traction Company. A movement is on foot for the construction by the city of an independent interurban railway terminal in conjunction with a rapid transit electric system.

The necessity of an independent terminal facility arises from the fact that, owing to the city's topography, the available entrances into and through the city are few in number, already occupied by street railway tracks, the use of which by interurban cars reduces the speed of these interurban cars to that of the ordinary cars of the local street railroad system. The length of time involved in this entrance to the city causes considerable increase in the operating expense and in terminal charges which seriously reduces the profitableness of interurban operation into the city.

The question of interurban terminals is one of the city's greatest problems.

Rapid Transit.—A rapid transit transportation highway is one which, by avoiding the use of the ordinary streets, either longitudinally or crossings, and also by avoidance of heavy grades, avoids the reduction of speed incident to the use of the streets and of heavy grades, and permits the use of trains of cars of larger types of cars.

The need of rapid transit in large and growing communities such as Cincinnati arises from several motives:

(a) To relieve congestion in downtown centers. Congestion is due to the attempt to conduct more traffic on the downtown streets than these can carry. Congestion of cars causes delay and limits the supply of transportation furnished.

(b) By reducing the time involved in rides to suburban districts and by connecting these suburbs with each other to increase the use of suburban districts for residential purposes, and thus reduce tenement house conditions.

(c) By reducing the time required for long rides, thereby to lower the operating expense of carrying passengers long distances, thus enabling the city to grow in extent and increase the suburban area without increasing fares.

(d) To furnish facilities for distributing foods and other necessities, thus avoiding expense of long cartage hauls and thereby reducing the cost of living in the city.

In Cincinnati there is the additional special motive for the need of rapid transit lines, already mentioned, namely, of furnishing an independent entrance for interurban car lines.

The movement in Cincinnati for a rapid transit system, now coming to fruition, is actuated by all these motives. The location of the interurban terminal will necessarily be governed by these motives, as well as by the necessity of keeping the cost within a practicable limit.

Governmental Activities

CHAPTER XX

The Municipal Government

Government in the United States is composed of three units: the nation, the state, and the city. Of these three it is ever the city government which affects the people most intimately. Very important it is, therefore, that all should understand what the municipal government is, what it can do, and how it is organized to carry on its many activities. In order to understand these things, it is first necessary to know something about the relation of the city to the state. For according to a well-accepted principle of American government, the city cannot be considered as an independent unit, but only as a part of the particular state in which it is situated.

Relations Between City and State.—The city has no power to carry on any city function without authority from the state. The state decides what kind of government the city may have, what officers of the city shall be elected, and which of the officers shall be appointed. It also defines in general what all these officials may do. Hence when the city desires to engage in any special activity, from street cleaning to city terminals, it must be sure that it has been granted power from the state to do that particular thing. If such power has not already been granted, the city has to go to the state Legislature and request that body to pass a law which will vest sufficient authority in the local officials to carry out the needed work.

The kind of government in the city is determined by the state Constitution or the state Legislature. In 1802, when Cincinnati was only a pioneer settlement, the Legislature granted it a village government. The community grew so rapidly that it was not long until this simple form of government could no longer meet its needs. As a result, in 1819 Cincinnati was duly incorporated as a city. At first the most important officials of the city were the councilmen. Later much of the power of the city Council was taken away and vested in various boards and commissions. These were sometimes elected by the voters, but more

frequently they were appointed by the state officials. This was known as the board system of government, and was prevalent until the beginning of the twentieth century. The board system had many advantages over the old council system, but it proved to be weak in one respect. Under that it was difficult to fix responsibility upon any public official. There thus resulted a lack of harmony which made it difficult, if not impossible, to obtain really good city government. Accordingly many of the boards and commissions of Cincinnati were abolished or were made subordinate to the Mayor. In this way the principal defect of the former system was removed.

Cincinnati's Form of Government.—At the present time the government of Cincinnati is based upon laws passed by the state Legislature in 1902, and from time to time since. These laws are known as the "Ohio municipal code." The code provides in general for a city Council, some of the members of which are elected from the city as a whole, the others by wards. The code also provides for the election of a Mayor, who is more or less independent of the city Council. Thus the local laws or ordinances of the city are made by Council, while it is the duty of the Mayor or of the staff of officials appointed by him to enforce them.

Federal Form.—This form of government is commonly known as the "federal form," inasmuch as it is patterned after the national government at Washington. Most cities in this country are organized under the federal form of government.

Although the federal type of government for cities is widely used, there are many who believe it is not the best form of government for a city. It has indeed some weaknesses that should be noted. For instance, it sometimes happens in some cities that the Mayor and Council do not work together in harmony. The work of the city is then not carried on efficiently, by reason of friction between these two organs of government. It is further claimed that when councilmen are elected from wards they sometimes neglect the interests of the city as a whole, in order to look after that of their own wards. This leads to bargaining between councilmen, and the injection of too much petty ward politics into the larger municipal affairs.

Under the federal system the heads of departments are supposed to be held responsible for the efficiency of their own departments. Yet it is Council that determines the number of

each kind of employees and the wages of each. Council can and does abolish positions, or create new ones carrying wages determined by it alone. Council can change the wages or salaries of employees at will, and makes all appropriations. Because of these things, responsibility is divided. A high degree of efficiency is difficult to secure.

Commission Form.—Within recent years, in an effort to remedy these defects, several hundred cities have abandoned the federal form of government and have adopted what is known as the "commission form." This provides for a very small council, usually consisting of five persons, elected from the city as a whole, and not from wards, as in the federal form. This board of commissioners is vested with complete power to pass city ordinances. It also appoints all city officials, who enforce the laws under its direction, and it thus exercises complete control over the whole city government. The commission plan is much simpler than the federal.

Commission-Manager Form.—A third type of city government is known as the "commission-manager form." This differs in some important respects from the commission form. In it a small board or commission, usually of five persons, is elected by the voters of the whole city. This commission acts as a city council in passing ordinances, but what is special to it is that the enforcement of the law is left to a manager. This manager is appointed by the commission. He controls all the city officials engaged in administration much as does the manager of a large factory or business concern. The commission-manager form of government is thought by many desirable, as it removes a number of the weaknesses of the federal form, and yet insures harmony between the men who make the laws and those who enforce them.

Municipal Home Rule.—The kind of government which any city should have depends largely upon local conditions peculiar to that city, and upon the character, habits, and ideals of its population. Sometimes the members of the state Legislature who come from other sections of the state do not understand or appreciate these local conditions very thoroughly, and hence are not well qualified to determine what the government of that city should be. It is naturally felt that the people living in a city best understand its needs, and often that they should have a larger share than they have had in the past in shaping

their government to meet these needs. As a result, the people of several states have amended their constitutions in such a way as to permit the cities to adopt any form of government they may desire, provided that it does not conflict with the laws of the state. These provisions are known as "home rule" provisions, because they give the cities power to rule themselves. Many cities have taken advantage of the opportunity, and in the "home rule charters" which they have adopted have changed their governments to suit themselves and their conditions.

Municipal Charters.—Ohio is one of the states in which home rule exists. Hence it is now possible for Cincinnati to frame and adopt a charter of its own, without interference of the state Legislature. The method by which it may do so is as follows: Ten per cent of the voters desiring a change in the form of government must signify their desire by signing a petition asking that an election be called, at which the people are to vote on the question of framing a charter. Such an election may also be called by two-thirds of Council. Should the voters favor a change, a commission of fifteen men is elected to draft a new charter. The commission has one year in which to complete its work and submit it to the voters for approval. If a majority of the voters favor the charter, it becomes the fundamental law of the city.

A number of cities in Ohio have changed their governments in this way. Some, such as Dayton and Springfield, have decided to adopt the commission-manager form of government. Others have simply modified the old federal form under which they had been working. In 1913 the people of Cincinnati decided to take advantage of the home rule provision, and they elected a charter commission. The commission recommended a modified form of the federal plan, including many features of government new to this city, such as: a Council elected at large (thus doing away with the ward system); non-partisan elections with enforced publicity as to candidates; a public utilities commission; a rapid transit commission; and a city planning commission. The proposed charter contained certain provisions which since, with more or less modification, have been made available to Cincinnati by special act of the Legislature. Among these are: provision for a city planning commission and for a rapid transit commission. This legislation was secured through the activity of the civic and business organizations.

The charter for Cincinnati when submitted to the voters was, however, rejected. Hence Cincinnati is still governed according to the Ohio municipal code.

The Organs of Government.—The principal organs of the government of Cincinnati are the Council, the Mayor, the executive departments, and the courts.

Council.—The legislative department of the city government consists of a body of men elected by the voters and known as the city Council. There are thirty-two members of the Council of Cincinnati. The city is divided into twenty-six local divisions or wards. One councilman is elected from each of these

THE OLD CITY HALL

wards. The remaining six members are not chosen from any particular ward, but are elected to represent the city as a whole. All these men are elected at the same time and serve for two years. The presiding officer of the city Council is called the President of Council. He is also elected by the voters. He not only presides over the meetings of Council, but acts as Mayor when that official is absent from the city or is unable to serve for any other reason.

The powers of Council are specified in the municipal code, and relate to many subjects. It may levy and collect taxes and special assessments for improvements, borrow money, and make appropriations for all the departments of the city government. It may grant franchises to corporations, regulate the use of the streets and the construction of buildings, license various sorts of businesses and occupations, provide for public

improvements of all kinds, and, in general, perform the legislative functions of the city government.

Acts passed by Council are called ordinances or resolutions.

The Council meets as a body every week to transact its business. These metings are open to the public and any person interested is welcome to attend. Frequently when important business is up for consideration, a large number of citizens are present. Each week there is a large amount of work for the Council to do, some of it legislative and some administrative. Communications and petitions from taxpayers are heard and acted upon; ordinances, resolutions, and motions are introduced by members or by other city officials, and are either referred to committees for investigation or acted upon immediately by Council. After ordinances are passed by Council, they are sent to the Mayor for his approval. If he disapproves of any ordinance sent him, he may signify his disproval by vetoing it. The ordinance must then be returned to Council, and if it is again passed by a two-thirds majority, it becomes a law without consent of the Mayor.

Committees.—Before Council acts upon any particular matter, it frequently finds it necessary to make an investigation of the subject. For this purpose there are a number of committees, each with five members. One member may, and usually does, serve on several committees. Some of the more important committees are as follows: Ways and Means; Streets and Parks; Finance; Light; Sewers; Law, Contracts and Claims; and Assessments for Improvements.

When a proposed ordinance is referred to a committee the committee is supposed to study the problem carefully and finally report back to Council, recommending that the proposed ordinance be passed or amended or defeated. If the subject is of exceptional importance, the committee usually holds a public hearing, when all persons interested may appear and express their views on the proposal.

Initiative and Referendum.—Should Council fail to pass an ordinance which is desired, the people themselves may frame such an ordinance and send it to Council with a petition signed by ten per cent of the voters of the city, asking that the bill be enacted into law. If Council then refuses to pass it, an election must be called at which the bill is submitted directly to the

people for their approval or disapproval. It is this process which is known as the "initiative."

Through the "referendum" the voters may veto an ordinance passed by Council. As a rule, ordinances do not go into effect until thirty days after their passage. In the meantime a petition may be circulated and signed by ten per cent of the voters asking that the proposed ordinance be submitted to the voters. An election is then called, and if a majority of the voters

THE PRESENT CITY HALL

favor the ordinance, it becomes a law; but if a majority of those voting on the measure vote against it, it is defeated.

The Mayor.—The Mayor is the chief executive of the city. He is elected by the voters for a term of two years. His salary is fixed by ordinance, and is at present $10,000 per annum. It is the duty of the Mayor to see that the ordinances of the city are properly enforced. He has large powers of supervision and direction over the administrative departments of the city government. He appoints the Director of Public Service, the Director of Public Safety, and the heads of other important departments, and may remove some of them from office. The

Mayor is also the chief guardian of the peace of the city. By reason of this he has power to suppress riots and, when necessary, to call upon the Governor for the aid of the state militia. The veto power of the Mayor has already been mentioned.

In general, the Mayor is regarded as the titular head of the city. He represents the city on various occasions, and, because of the prominence of his position, the people look to him more than to any other city official to take the lead in promoting good city government.

The Department of Public Service.—The Department of Public Service is one of the largest and most important units of the city government. It is under the control of the Director of Public Service, who is appointed directly by the Mayor, and at present receives a salary of $8,000 per year. In order to carry on the work of the department there are several subdepartments, each of which is managed by a superintendent.

It is this department that performs practically all the engineering work of the city. It builds bridges, viaducts, and other structures on the public highways of the city. It keeps in repair the 960 miles of streets; lays out new streets and paves them. It plans and constructs sewer systems; cleans, sprinkles, and oils the streets. It makes contracts for lighting the streets with gas or electricity, all as authorized by Council. This department has charge of the city hall, public bath houses and comfort stations, the municipal markets and wharves, and other public lands and buildings. It also has charge of the purchasing of goods for the city and the testing of measures and scales to see that they are accurate. Finally, the very important function of supplying pure water to the residents of the city constitutes a part of the work of the Department of Public Service. Cincinnati owns and operates its own $20,000,000 water works, supplying an average of over 50,000,000 gallons of pure water per day, one of the finest systems in the United States.

The Department of Public Safety. A city must protect the lives and property of its citizens against vice and crime, and care for the weak and dependent elements of the population. In Cincinnati these services are performed by the Department of Public Safety. Like the Department of Public Service, it is placed in charge of a Director, appointed by the Mayor and immediately responsible to him. His present salary is $8,000 per year.

The functions of this department are performed by five subdepartments, as follows: Police, Fire, Building and Tenement Inspection, Smoke Inspection, and Public Welfare.

The chief duty of the police is, of course, to prevent crime, and to arrest offenders who violate the laws. They perform also many incidental functions, such as regulating the traffic on the streets, controlling crowds in case of fires, rendering assistance in case of accidents, and aiding strangers who are not familiar with the city. The entire force is organized in a military fashion with a Chief of Police at its head, who is under civil service, and so cannot be removed for political reasons. In 1915 there were more than 700 officers and patrolmen in the police force in Cincinnati. (See also chapter VII for more detailed account of the department.)

Fighting fires is one of the most spectacular functions which the city has to perform. In spite of the excellent equipment and organization of the fire departments of our cities, hundreds of millions of dollars of property are destroyed each year in America by fires. In 1913, in Cincinnati alone, property valued at more than $1,000,000 was destroyed by fires. The total number of Fire Department employees is over 600. The fire-fighting force of about 550 men is organized much as the police force, with a Fire Chief in control. It is not only the duty of the Fire Department to extinguish fires after they are once started, but also to prevent fires by inspecting theaters and other buildings for fire hazards. (For more detailed account of the Fire Department, see chapter VIII.)

One of the most frequent sources of destructive fires is to be found in the faulty construction of buildings. In order to reduce this danger to a minimum, the city requires all buildings to be approved by the Commissioner of Buildings. Frequent inspections of tenements and other buildings are made to see that the city ordinances relating to the proper inclosing of stairs, elevator shafts, fire windows, and proper plumbing are enforced. (For more detailed account of the duties of the Commissioner of Buildings, see chapter IX.)

All Cincinnatians are familiar with the smoke nuisance. The city has been waging war on the smoke evil for a number of years. Recently great improvement has been made over former conditions. To combat this smoke evil the city maintains a Department of Smoke Inspection, consisting of a Chief Smoke

Inspector and several deputy inspectors. (See also chapter VI on The Public Health.)

The last important function of the Department of Public Safety is that of caring for the city's poor and defectives and maintaining correctional institutions for the punishment of offenders. These are among the oldest as well as most important functions performed by city governments. The city maintains Opportunity Farms for boys and girls, where delinquent children are taught to become useful citizens; a City Workhouse, where older offenders against the ordinances of the city are punished; a City Infirmary for the care of the aged poor, who have no means of support; and a Municipal Lodging House, where homeless men are furnished lodging and meals for a few days while they endeavor to obtain work. In addition to these institutions, the city has constructed and maintains magnificent hospitals, where the poor of the city may obtain the very best medical treatment. (See also chapter X on "Dependency and Delinquency.")

The Board of Park Commissioners.—This board consists of three persons appointed by the Mayor, each of whom serves for a three-year term. One member is appointed each year, so that the board always contains some men who have had experience, and are familiar with the plans for park improvements. It is the duty of the Park Commissioners to keep the city parks and playgrounds in proper condition, and to plan for their future development. Like most other cities of our country, Cincinnati for a long time was slow in providing for the recreation and pleasure of its citizens. Formerly beautiful parks and boulevards were considered as luxuries, in which few cities could afford to indulge. Public playgrounds and athletic fields were almost unthought of. But each year makes it clearer that these things are vitally necessary to the health and happiness of the people. A few years ago, when the management of the city's parks was placed in the hands of a Board of Park Commissioners, they employed a skilled landscape architect to plan a complete system of parks, playgrounds, and boulevards for the city. This plan, known as the Kessler plan, has been adopted by the board, and is gradually being carried out. When it is completed, Cincinnati will possess one of the most attractive park systems in the United States, and will have gone far to-

ward realizing the ideal of the city beautiful. (See also chapter XV on Recreation.)

The Board of Health.—The duty of protecting the health of the inhabitants of the city rests with the Board of Health. It consists of five members, appointed one each year by the Mayor for terms of five years each. The Mayor also acts as a member of the board. The Board of Health has power to pass rules and regulations of various sorts to prevent the spread of contagious diseases, and to take other necessary steps to guard against disease and conserve the health of the community.

The orders of the Board of Health are enforced by the Health Officer, who is usually a physician of wide experience. Under his direction, visiting physicians visit the homes of the poor and give medical aid to those who are ill and cannot employ a physician. Other officers inspect milk, meat, and other food sold within the city to see that it is pure and wholesome. Bakeshops, restaurants, laundries, barbershops, factories, and other places are likwise inspected. These are only some of many things that are done by the Board of Health to make the city a wholesome and healthful place in which to live. (See also chapter VI, where the activities of the Board of Health are discussed in detail.)

The Trustees of the Sinking Fund.—When the city borrows money the law requires that it shall make adequate provision for the payment of the debt when it becomes due. If the city desired to construct a park system, and borrowed for this purpose $1,000,000 payable in thirty years, it would be extremely burdensome and unjust to require the taxpayers to pay the entire sum at the end of thirty years from money raised that year. It is far more equitable to ask the taxpayers to lay aside a certain sum each year, so that when the debt is due there will be sufficient funds to extinguish it. In this way the burden may be evenly distributed throughout the period, and while the residents are enjoying the benefits of the improvement they are also helping to pay for it. Moneys collected from taxes and other sources that are to be used for the payment of bonds are kept in a separate fund and are in charge of a board known as the Trustees of the Sinking Fund. In Cincinnati this board consists of four persons appointed by the Mayor, one each year, and each member serves a four-year term. It is the duty of

the trustees to receive all money set aside for the payment of the city's debts, and invest it in such a way as to yield the city a safe return. Cincinnati's sinking fund has been handled with conspicuous efficiency. (See also chapter XXII on Municipal Finance.)

The Civil Service Commission.—It is often said that cities cannot do their work as efficiently as private businesses on account of the interference of "politics." It is not difficult to see why this may be so, when, after working hard and faithfully, one who is employed by the city instead of being promoted as he deserves to be, is discharged soon following the next election, simply in order to give his place to somebody who helped to get votes, and not because he is better able to fill the position.

It is the idea of the "merit system," or "civil service system," as it is often called, that all in the employ of the city should be selected because of their fitness to do the particular work required, and not as a reward for their political influence and partisan activity.

If this can be done, then the city will have its work done most efficiently. When it is remembered that the payroll of Cincinnati employees (not counting those of the public schools) amounts each year to about $3,500,000, or 60 per cent of the total expenditures of the city, the importance of the employment of efficient workers for the city can be seen.

From time to time examinations are held by the Civil Service Commission for the various positions in the city departments. The names of those who pass the examinations are placed upon lists in the order of their rank as shown by their grades. When an appointment is to be made, it must be from the three highest names on the list for that grade. In this way, if the examinations are of the right kind and the markings are impartial, as they should be, appointments go to those who are qualified to do the work required.

In the same way promotions are made after examinations, in which length and efficiency of previous service usually count for a great deal.

It is sometimes said that the law protects from removal those who are "under civil service." In Ohio this means that before anyone who has been appointed as the result of examination can be removed legally, he has the right to receive a statement of the reasons for his removal and to submit a reply

showing why he should not be removed. A removal for political or religious reasons is illegal. Policemen and firemen have certain special rights in addition to the above.

Of course there are a great many details about the civil service law of Ohio which cannot be explained here. But the general idea as set forth in the constitution of the state is that "appointments and promotions . . . shall be made according to merit and fitness." It is only so far as this principle is actually carried out that our cities can be really well governed and the municipal work carried on efficiently.

The successful operation of civil service depends fundamentally upon whether its examinations really determine the relative fitness of candidates to do the work of the positions for which they are examined. To formulate examinations that will do this and to see that they are conducted impartially and graded correctly is a difficult problem. The final success of civil service will depend upon its solution of this problem.

The Municipal Court.—The judicial function of the city is performed by the local courts. Formerly in Cincinnati, as in other cities, the only local courts were the police courts and the courts of the Justices of the Peace, where petty criminal offenses and civil suits were tried. While the city was small this system was sufficient, but as it grew in size the police courts proved to be very inadequate in handling the enormous amount of work which fell to them. Hence in 1912 Cincinnati followed the lead of most other large cities of the country and established a special Municipal Court, which consists of five judges, elected by the voters for four years. The court tries both civil and criminal cases of a minor nature, with the assistance of a jury, when such is demanded by either party to a suit.

As these are the courts that affect large numbers of persons, particularly immigrants and others least able to protect themselves, it is of the greatest importance that the judges of these courts should be well versed in the law, of recognized standing in the community, free from personal and political bias, and possessed of common sense and practical wisdom.

Municipal Reference Bureau.—The Municipal Reference Bureau was organized in 1913, under the Department of Political Science of the University of Cincinnati. Its quarters in the city hall are adjacent to the Council chamber and the rooms of the Board of Education. The library of this bureau contains

material relating to all phases of city government and municipal activities. This bureau is primarily for the use of Council and the administrative officers of the city; but it is available to the general public and students as well. Through this agency students in political and social science are enabled to familiarize themselves more intimately with the actual operation of both the city government and the organizations and institutions working for political and social betterment.

Duty of the Public.—The government of a city is a very complicated mechanism, doing many things, employing many people, and spending much money. Cincinnati has (including public schools and University) 5,000 employees, the annual payroll for whom amounts to about $5,300,000. Here are represented over 100 different occupations, many of them involving work of considerable skill, and some even highly technical in character.

A private business employing this many people at such an outlay certainly would be found in the hands of trained men directing its affairs. The workers would be selected because of their fitness to perform their several jobs.

The city's business is even more important than a private enterprise, inasmuch as it affects the welfare of the whole community. The city's business is to safeguard the health, property, and lives, and in many ways to serve 400,000 people who live within its borders, and these people, the taxpayers, foot the bill.

Certainly the city's business is worth doing well. And yet according to the procedure of municipal government, employees too often are selected without considering their experience, or their technical ability as measures of fitness to do the work for which they are employed.

The citizen should learn to take an interest in his city. One cannot be interested in anything until he knows something about it. Lack of interest in the city's government has been largely due simply to lack of knowledge about it.

As citizens realize the complexity and importance of the city's work and the city's problems, they will apply business principles in the selection of the public officials, and will insist most strenuously that the city's employees also be selected because of their fitness to do their work.

"Many of us forget that the obligation is not all upon the part of the city. We expect the city to do this thing or that

thing for us, and if it is not done we enter our protest as vigorously as we can. But do we often stop to think whether we ourselves are fulfilling our obligations to the city? Are we carefully obeying its laws? Do we make it easy for the public official to enforce them? Do we help him, the public official, whenever we can? Do we bother to tell him and others that we approve when he does what we think is meritorious? Or do we take his good acts as a matter of course, and only speak when he does what we believe to be wrong or against our own personal interests?

"If we would begin to voice our approval of things we like as strongly as we condemn things we do not like, how much easier it would be for the public official. It would encourage him to stand for the things he knows are good, but which, if carried out, would meet strenuous opposition in some quarters, while the great majority who approved neglected to express their views."

The citizen has the right to insist upon proper service by the city. He should also take equal care that he fulfills his own obligations to the city.

THE CITY SEAL

CHAPTER XXI

Municipal Finance

In the whole range of human activities there are few subjects more important than that which deals with finance. To the citizen, the manner in which the city collects and expends its revenues should surely be of the greatest interest. He pays the taxes. He should know how the taxes are spent and what he gets for his money.

The mention of the word "finance" generally calls to mind an uninteresting array of account books and long, dreary columns of figures. Viewed, however, in the proper light, these figures are far from dull. To a certain extent, indeed, the financial tables are a kind of barometer registering the city's human and corporate welfare. The change of even a few figures in the city's budget may mean that the property of all the citizens is henceforth to be better protected. It may mean that the lives of thousands of Cincinnati babies may be saved through some extension of the Health Department's activities, or it may mean that the city's public utilities are going to furnish further service to the community; or it may also mean that the children are to be given a new playground or a more extended education.

Such changes in the figures sometimes express the interest or the apathy of the citizens and the degree of wisdom and ability and forethoughtfulness of the officials. In the financial statement is recorded the growth of the city in well-being and business efficiency. Finance is the backbone of the city government. For without money the many activities of the city could not be carried on.

In very primitive times there was no such thing as a public purse. Even until the Middle Ages individuals did not make any regular money payments to the State. Instead, their contributions took the form of some sort of service, and this was generally levied in the form of labor, such as working in the fields or on the roads, or doing some form of military duty.

To-day, with our complex form of civilization, such a system would be out of the question. Instead, private individuals pay money into the treasury of the public to have these services performed by regular officials for mutual good. That is, we pay our taxes to the city and to the state, and the money is in turn expended on projects for the common betterment. Since we pay the money, we not only have the right to see how it is spent, but should insist that it is wisely and economically spent by the men whom we have delegated to take charge of our political affairs. We should get our money's worth. Within the last few years particularly, recognition has been increasingly given to the fact that city government is largely a business proposition, and that it must be run on strict business principles.

Like any individual, the city must consider what is best for it, how much it wishes to spend, and how much it has to spend. Unlike the individual, however, who gauges his expenditures by his income, the city must gauge its income by its expenditures. What it is forced to spend it must find money to pay for.

The Budget.—To most business men it would seem the most natural thing for a city to make a program, to estimate what it would need to continue its activities for the coming year. Having done this, getting the estimate as accurate as possible, by comparison with the expenditures for several preceding years and considering needed increases, it would then levy taxes as nearly as possible to the amount needed, so that a proper balance would result at the end of the financial year. The great trouble in city management generally in the past has been the lack of such adequate programs or budgets. Every city ought to have a financial program, and should know approximately beforehand what it is going to spend, how it is going to spend it, and also where it is going to get the money.

Generally, however, cities have gone about their finance in just the reverse way. They first have set a tax rate, and then have proceeded to appropriate money for payments without regard to the total of the revenue to be received at the rate set. As a result, cities generally have found themselves yearly getting more deeply into debt, and their political officers afraid to raise the rate of taxation.

Let us now examine the procedure in Cincinnati and the manner in which we ascertain what our receipts shall be, and

how much we shall desire to spend. This involves a discussion of the city budget.

The budget is the fiscal plan, the financial program. It is the table of expenditures which is placed before the appropriating body, the city Council, just as any good housekeeper makes out her list of things to be bought, and money to buy them. In fact, the terms municipal finance or even political economy are derived from simple Latin and Greek expressions meaning city housekeeping.

Preparation of the Budget.- The first step in the preparation of the city budget is to find out how much the various departments will need for the coming year. Perhaps as early as March, the Mayor requests of the heads of the various departments estimates stating just how much will be required to run their departments for the next fiscal year. That is, the budget that is adopted in 1915 would properly be spoken of as the 1916 budget.

The various department heads each prepares his estimate of his probable needs and sends it in to the Mayor. Of course, the heads of departments are unable to determine exactly what will be needed; but by comparison with the expenditures of the year before and taking into account prospective changes, they are able to judge with some accuracy. Experience has taught them that they can expect to have their estimates cut down, so they are generally sure to ask for more than they actually expect to obtain.

These estimates of probable expenditure, when sent to the Mayor, are combined by him into the city budget. He generally revises the estimates. He may merely accept the department estimates and add them together, or he may send for the department heads and ask if certain items cannot be omitted. The Mayor, if he is a wise and forethoughtful man, then carefully scans all details. For the budget is vital to the welfare of his city. All the activities in which the city will engage are stated therein. As a general rule, except in the case of flood or accident, nothing of an administrative nature will be done except what has been previously provided for in the budget.

As the making of the budget concerns the people of the city, the Mayor should give the public an opportunity to be heard as to the details during its preparation. The more the public knows about the city's business the greater will be the

people's interest in their city. Publicity is the greatest cure for municipal ills. The taxpayer contributes largely toward the city's expenses, and when he wishes he should be allowed a voice as to the manner of such expenditure. It is only within the last few years that the public has been invited to take part in making up the budget. Even now all our Mayors have not followed this practice. It is hoped that soon it will become a settled policy, and eventually become a custom.

When the Mayor has made up the budget, he sends it to the legislative body of the city, the Council, where action is taken. Although, theoretically, Council has the right to change the provisions of the budget, as a matter of fact very little alteration is ever made. Council is legally given the power to decrease any item, but not to increase it. The budget is adopted just as it comes from the Mayor.

Until a few years ago the procedure as to passing the budget ended at this point. When once Council had passed the budget, the matter was settled, and the tax rate thereupon determined. Now the budget goes from the City Council to the County Budget Commission.

The County Budget Commission.—The County Budget Commission is composed of the County Auditor, the County Prosecutor, and the County Treasurer.

What is called the Smith Law provides that the Budget Commission may levy a tax for city purposes not to exceed five mills; for school purposes not to exceed five mills; and for county purposes not to exceed three mills.

But the law specifies that the total shall not exceed ten mills. So that while the law allows the above maxima for the different purposes, it is the function of the County Budget Commission to cut down the estimates here and there, so that the combined budgets of the county and all the municipalities in the county shall not exceed the ten mills of the Smith Law in any community.

The commission knows what the state levy will be, for that is fixed by law. It must, therefore, adjust the budgets of the other units.

These adjusters can go into the details, and may reduce any or all of the items. To bring the amount of the budget within legal limits, they may simply make a uniform cut of a certain percentage from all the different funds. This method, though

easy, is very bad, inasmuch as certain governmental functions are of more vital importance to the public welfare than are others. Also, while some departments may be asking for only what is absolutely needed, others, knowing that their estimates probably will be cut, are asking for far more than their real requirements.

The best method is carefully to study the needs of the different units, calling in the heads of the departments and finding out exactly which activities are indispensable and which can be omitted or limited without seriously injuring the efficiency of the government. The amount which is at last decided upon by this Budget Commission determines the city tax rate, unless it is raised by an "extra tax levy" through a favorable referendum vote of the people.

As can readily be seen, this system is apt to become entirely too rigid. With the steady increase in its activities, the city will need more and more money. In order to provide for this, the Smith Law states that if they so desire, the voters may raise the tax rate above the ten mills by referendum. They may not, however, vote an extra tax levy which will bring the aggregate rate above fifteen mills for all purposes.

So much for the way the budget is estimated and settled. We now have our program for the year completed. We have discovered how much we want to spend, and how we are going to spend it, and what our income will be. The next step is that the city Council appropriates by ordinance the money for six-month periods, beginning January first and July first. Before a department can spend any money, the Auditor must certify that funds are on hand, as appropriated by Council for that purpose. No money in hand, no spending. The next question to study is where to obtain the money.

Sources of Revenue.—We have examined somewhat in detail how the city determines what money it shall spend. Let us now turn our attention to the sources of revenue by means of which the planned activities can be carried on next year.

The city of Cincinnati obtains the greater portion of its revenue from five sources: Taxation, the liquor license, the public service corporations, the Cincinnati Southern Railway, and from fees and licenses.

The greatest amount of revenue is always derived from the

general property tax. In Ohio the machinery for the collection of this tax is much as follows:

According to the law passed in 1915, we find the County Auditor at the head; under his direction are assessors, one elected from each ward; the County Auditor may appoint assistant assessors. These make investigations and try to discover and list all the taxable property held by the individuals within the city limits. They make a valuation of the property of all those within their jurisdiction. The County Auditor is then given a list of all the properties. No matter how carefully the assessors may work, there are sure to be inequalities and complaints on the part of those who say that they have been assessed more than their just share. For this reason, a Board of Revision is provided. This board is composed of three men, appointed by the County Treasurer, the Prosecuting Attorney, the Probate Judge, and the President of the County Commissioners. Its function is to adjust the inequalities and mistakes made by the assessors. With the aid of experts, whom they are permitted to appoint, they adjust the list made out by the assessors and submit it to the County Auditor.

Determination of the Tax Rate.—The next thing to consider is the tax rate. This is arrived at by taking the amount needed and dividing it by the total assessed amount of taxable property as listed on the duplicate. The quotient is the rate. The amount needed is determined in the manner already explained.

The rate having now been determined, the County Auditor, to fix the amount that each person shall pay, simply multiplies the value of his property as returned for taxation by the rate. Each individual then pays his taxes to the County Treasurer, who turns the city's portion over to the City Treasurer. It is in this manner the most of our revenue is obtained. The annual tax may be paid in semi-annual installments, in June and December, or annually, just as the taxpayer may prefer. The general property tax amounted to $4,527,005.24 in 1914.

Other Municipal Revenues.—Besides the general property tax, the largest revenue which the city obtains is from the Cincinnati Southern Railway. This railway, owned by the city, is 339 miles long, running to Chattanooga, Tennessee. It is leased to the operating company, and from the company the city derives a revenue. This revenue in 1914 amounted to

$1,219,050. The next largest source of revenue is from the liquor license, in 1914 amounting to $591,074.21. A goodly portion of our revenue, too, comes from the great public utilities. The Cincinnati street railway system pays to the city annually six per cent of its gross receipts. The Kentucky or "Green Line," too, pays for the use of our streets. The Gas Company and other large corporations pay licenses into the city treasury. The total franchise taxes received in 1914 amounted to $336,-316.10.

Fees and licenses form an important source of revenue. There are certain businesses which the city requires to pay a license fee for the privilege of continuing in operation. Every year the city collects a large sum from licenses on picture shows, theaters, billiard halls, employment agencies, bowling alleys, bill posters, auctioneers, itinerant vendors, street musicians, scavengers, and on vehicles and many others.

Then, too, a small part of the city's money comes from various city institutions. The City Hospital has patients who pay; charitable institutions collect small sums. The University charges fees to non-residents, registration to all students ostensibly for use of the library, for laboratory breakages, for special lectures, and to cover cost of certain materials used.

Bond Issues.—It sometimes happens that the city wishes to engage in some especially large undertaking, such as the construction of a new hospital, or a municipal market house, or the purchase of a park. In such cases, it is thought undesirable or is found impossible to burden the taxpayers with the immediate payment of the full amount. The money is therefore borrowed. This is done by means of the sale of bonds on which the city pays a stipulated amount of interest. Lest cities become too extravagant, the State of Ohio places limitations on their borrowing power. In Cincinnati, the borrowing is limited to eight per cent of the total valuation of assessed property in the city.

It is perfectly legitimate for the city to issue bonds and borrow money at interest for permanent improvements, such as public buildings, viaducts, etc., in which case the length of term of the bonds should be no longer than the probable life of the improvement. But it is a great financial mistake, and may mean disaster to borrow money for current expenses or to issue bonds for a term of years longer than the life of the im-

provement. For, if these things are done, we burden future years with payment for current obligations for which the future payers will be deriving no benefit. There has been a growing tendency to issue bonds for current expenses, such as for street repairs. This procedure should be unqualifiedly condemned. All bond issues should be carefully considered before being approved, especially as we consider the increasing proportion of non-self-supporting debt, as shown by the graphic chart number 11.

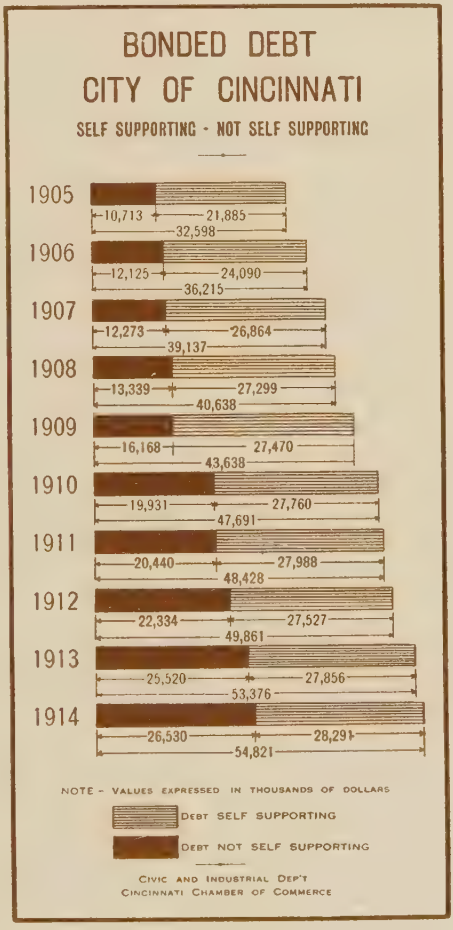


CHART 11.

The Sinking Fund.—Since the city is allowed to borrow, it must also provide for the payment of the debts which it has contracted. For this reason, a sinking fund is provided. This is merely a fund which the city lays aside and gradually increases, so as to pay off its debts when they become due. Every year the city puts a certain part of its income away; or, if the citizens so desire, it can levy a special sinking fund tax. In Cincinnati, there are four sinking fund trustees, whose duty it is to see that these funds are properly invested and taken care of. (See also chapter XXI.)

Municipal Financial Officers.—Let us now turn our attention to the men who handle the city's money.

The City Auditor is the head bookkeeper. His function is to keep and audit the accounts of the city. He checks the

expenditures of the other departments. All vouchers for payment of expenses must be approved by him.

Until late in the year 1913 the city's books of account were kept according to what is known as the single entry system. There was no accounting of sums due the city or of the city's property. Account was simply kept of cash receipts and of expenditures. In 1913 was introduced a double entry system corresponding in principle to those used in modern business houses, and which makes it possible to set out in detail the revenue and expenses, the assets and liabilities of the city. Cincinnati now keeps account of its property, of a great quantity of goods in its store houses, and of the amounts due to it. The city can now tell what it has, what it owes, what its expenses are, what its revenues should be, and to what extent they have been collected.

The balance sheet of the state of Cincinnati's finances at the close of the year 1914 shows city assets to the amount of $145,258,283.08, with a surplus over all liabilities of $77,240,-715.74.

The City Auditor's report for the year 1914 published the first complete detailed balance sheet for Cincinnati ever issued. Few American cities have progressed so far in their account keeping.

The City Treasurer is the man who keeps the city's money. He is responsible for it. He is the banker, as it were, and gives out the money only on the written approval of the Auditor.

The city keeps its money in various banks selected by the Treasurer. These banks must have a certain amount of security, and also must pay a required rate of interest. A substantial sum, however, must be kept in the treasury in the city hall for emergencies.

We see, therefore, that the financial management of a city such as Cincinnati is not so very different after all from that of a business concern. The tendency of the times is to demand that the city be run on a thoroughly economical and scientific basis.

With segregated budgets (budgets showing details of expenditures for various purposes), made after public discussion; with accurate and intelligible accounts open to all the citizens; and, above all, with the active cooperation and intelligent interest of the public, our city finances should finally measure up to the standards of the best managed business enterprises.

The Future City

CHAPTER XXII

City Planning

WHAT IT MEANS TO THE SOCIAL LIFE OF THE CITY

Cincinnati is something more than a home for its 400,000 inhabitants. It is the center of social activity for a vast region. From Cleveland to the north, St. Louis to the west, Atlanta to the south, and Pittsburgh to the east, it is "the city" to the entire population. Across the United States Cincinnati is considered as one of the most important cities of the nation, not only important now, but rich in expectation of growth, and rich also in tradition. Here converge the principal railways of the Mid-west; here are transhipped the goods of the North and the products of the South. The farmers, orchardists, manufacturers, consumers, and livestock husbandmen of a vast region depend on Cincinnati for exchange and barter.

Cincinnati, therefore, is largely a national custodian. It is obligated to its own people, of course. But these people, individually and collectively, owe a duty to the general mass of the people in every part of the land. Cincinnati is a member of a larger body, each member related to the other, just as each part of the city itself is a member of the body, which is the whole city.

As city planning for Cincinnati demands lofty social vision, a sense of local civic solidarity, and "social consciousness" on the part of each citizen, so the larger planning and the broader conception call for a national social consciousness and a sense of solidarity. The act of regarding Cincinnati as owing a duty to surrounding regions invests it with an immensely larger value and significance than if it merely had to work and plan for its own selfish interests.

City planning, then, must be a part of "state planning." and state planning is a part of national, even world-wide planning.

There must be attention to the city and rural regions as interrelated. Between the overdensity of the city and the ultra isolation of the rural regions there must be some sort of a

compromise, bringing the city conveniences to the country and the country advantages to the city.

Country planning is quite as necessary as city planning. Both city and country life have serious drawbacks. Indeed, the country first developed the disadvantages. It was in the chase after a betterment of a condition that the rush to the cities ensued. The country regions were thus robbed of their normal numbers. This has caused overgrowth, a mere accretion, rather than evolution, to the higher forms in the city. Size and growth of population became the chief aim.

City organizations have spent millions to induce enormous influxes into their particular cities. Population rather than quality of city development was the slogan. There never was a regime less reasonable. It was a riot of extravagant claims, uneconomic "boosting," and a dishonest covering up of a city's deficiencies. In the mere transfer of people from one place to another, by some legerdemain, good was thought to accrue, regardless of whether there was social need of such a transfer.

Happily, we have reached a period of saner thinking. Problems appalling have grown in our piled up, crude, unplanned, uneconomic cities. Misery and suffering have ensued. The cost of living has increased. Men and women now realize that quality, not size, is the desideratum. We think now not in the terms of hundreds of thousands of population, but in terms of municipal efficiency. We are not seeking a Cincinnati of a million people. Rather we are sensing the grave responsibilities of Cincinnati as the home of 400,000 human beings, adjacent to municipalities in which live 200,000 more, and the center of a region of 5,000,000 more. We are seeking to make Cincinnati so efficient that it can discharge these responsibilities.

Production and distribution are the basic functions of all life. Production has been placed on the road to economic evolution. Our largest wastes are in distribution. The city is an essential factor in the process of distribution. Food products often increase in cost enormously between arrival in a city terminal and delivery at the consumer's home. This increase in cost lays too heavy a burden on the people. City planning will be wise only when these principles are recognized. Any other kind of city planners will be insufficient, superficial; mere patchers of broken machines, instead of men and women of big ideas who labor for genuine good.

CITY PLANNING

City planning begins at the needs and rights of the people. It will end only when these needs and rights shall have been thoroughly established.

City planning is common sense, science, and forethought applied to the building and improvement of cities.

Why Needed.—City planning is needed because Cincinnati, in common with all our American cities, has grown beyond its facilities; because the city was laid out as a small town, and later has been built haphazard, and is not an economic machine for the transaction of the people's business; because, therefore, it is not as convenient and comfortable a home as it should be for the 400,000 persons who live here; and because it may be thereby rendered more ideal as a municipal home.

What Cincinnati Has Done.—Cincinnati has accomplished much in preparation for scientific city planning.

In 1912 and 1913 it made a comprehensive topographical survey, which is the first scientific step towards true city planning. This survey cost $70,000, and is one of the most complete ever made by any city. During this same period it prepared for a comprehensive extension and improvement of its sewer system according to the latest scientific way of sanitary engineering.

Cincinnati has recently planned a needed extension and improvement of its water supply system, including a high-pressure installation for the business district.

It has projected the installation of a rapid transit system.

It has partially prepared for the creation of an adequate water transportation and water terminal system.

It has also determined to have protection against the annual losses caused by the flood waters of the Ohio River.

It has considered and determined to have a scientific and adequate railroad terminal system.

And it has already planned and begun to develop a magnificent park, boulevard, and playground system which, when advanced to even the stage of partial completion, will give the people one of the most useful of its kind in the world.

Mention is made above of several "systems," the "sewer system," the "water system," etc. Heretofore work on and preparation for extensions and improvements of existing facilities, or the creation of new facilities, has proceeded more by a general plan which took in the city as a whole, but still by

virtually independent municipal agencies. These have worked and planned much as though they were isolated bodies not related to each other as parts of a municipal organism demanding close cooperation and coordination. Therefore Cincinnati has needed to create the agencies which will bring all these municipal works into harmony.

The City Planning Commission.—The first thing needed is a City Planning Commission. The statute enacted by the Legislature at Columbus, Thursday, May 27, 1915, empowers the governments of all Ohio cities to appoint such commissions. The new law becomes effective January 1, 1916. It provides the following:

The Council of each municipality may establish a City Planning Commission consisting of seven members, the Mayor, the Director of Public Service, the President of the Board of Park Commissioners, and four citizens of the municipality, who shall serve without compensation.

The powers and duties of the commission shall be to make plans and maps of the whole or any portion of such municipality, and of any land outside the municipality which, in the opinion of the commission, bears relation to the planning of the municipality, and to make changes in such plans or maps when it deems the same advisable. Such maps or plans shall show the commission's recommendations for new streets, alleys, ways, viaducts, bridges, subways, parkways, parks, playgrounds, or any other public grounds or public improvements; and the removal, relocation, widening, or extension of such public works then existing. With a view to the systematic planning of the municipalities, the commission may make recommendations to the Mayor, Council, and department heads concerning the location of streets, transportation and communication facilities, public buildings and grounds.

The commission shall have the power to control, preserve, and care for historical landmarks; to control, in the manner provided by ordinance, the design and location of statuary and other works of art which are or may become the property of the municipality; and the removal, relocation, and alteration of any such works belonging to the municipality; the design of harbors, bridges, viaducts, street fixtures, and other public structures and appurtenances.

Whenever the commission shall have made a plan for the

municipality, or any portion thereof, no public building, street, boulevard, parkway, park, playground, public ground, canal, river front, harbor, dock, wharf, bridge, viaduct, tunnel, utility (whether publicly or privately owned), or part thereof shall be constructed or altered unless approved by the commission; provided that, in case of disapproval, the commission shall communicate its reasons for disapproval to Council and the department head of the department which has control of the construction of the proposed improvement or utility; and Council, by a vote of not less than two-thirds of its members, and such department head shall together have the power to overrule such disapproval. The narrowing, ornamentation, vacation, or change in the use of streets and other public ways, grounds, and places shall be subject to similar approval; and disapproval may be similarly overruled. The commission may make recommendations to any public authorities or to any corporations or individuals in such municipality or the territory contiguous thereto concerning the location of any buildings, structures, or works to be erected or constructed by them.

The commission shall be the platting commission of the municipality. The platting of all subdivisions shall be subject to its approval. This will make it possible to secure proper laying out of streets and proper relation of the highways in new subdivisions to those of the adjacent sections of the city.

Council may authorize the commission to control the height, design, and location of buildings.

The appointment of a City Planning Commission marks the beginning of a new era in the development of Cincinnati. The law of May 27, 1915, is one of the best ever drawn in the United States. The citizens of Cincinnati should make themselves familiar with the exact degree of power granted to the commission under its terms.

The Development of Public Spirit.—In addition to the creation of the City Planning Commission, Cincinnati needs the development of a public spirit which will demand comprehensive planning, a look into a long future. Cincinnati, as all our cities, must build for the future. Cincinnati owes to itself its most earnest attention to the social needs of generations yet unborn, of its youth soon to become its citizens, and of the persons who at this time are not counted as its residents.

True scientific city planning, therefore, will take into ac-

count the future as well as the present. It will seek to correct any distressing conditions which, in future years, would prevent the attainment of highest efficiency by the people.

The creation of these two agencies—a City Planning Commission and an insistent public opinion—will pave the way for true city planning. They will insure that Cincinnati shall fulfill its duty to the present and the future.

City Planning Should Be Continuous.—City planning for Cincinnati should never end so long as human lives depend on its ministrations to its comfort and needs. However, proper city planning will involve a working towards a tentative, comprehensive plan for development—a plan which will be plastic, a growing thing, evolving as the city evolves, always taking into account changed conditions, as well as the discoveries and inventions of experts.

This plan, tentatively agreed upon, will be the subject of constant study. It will be a better plan twenty years hence than it will be ten years hence, just as the first comprehensive plan adopted will be better than the no-plan procedure of the past.

In the immediate future, then, proper city planning in Cincinnati will involve a special study of all the elements of the present life of the community; the physical characteristics, the commercial needs of the present and the future, the industrial demands, the financial resources, the social conditions and needs. These will be studied on the principle that all of them must be joined in an intelligent, scientific "system" which shall take into its scope all the several "systems" which heretofore have been too generally regarded as separate works to be constructed or developed as independent municipal studies.

Fundamental Principles.—As this comprehensive study proceeds, a few fundamental principles must be kept in mind:

Our national increase of population has been mostly in our cities in late decades.

Between 1900 and 1910 of the total population increase, 70 per cent was in urban communities, and only 30 per cent in rural regions.

As mechanical inventions have increased in number, this urban population proportion has rapidly increased. This has brought on us as a nation many problems. These problems may be grouped under the general heading of congestion; that is,

the drawing of so many persons from the country into city centers has induced a too high degree of concentration, a going beyond the limit of economic density of population and traffic. In modern industrial life, economists recognize that there is a point beyond which concentration becomes congestion. Congestion means fevers and wastes and losses in cities or industries, as well as in human life. Congestion in the human body brings physical disorders. Exactly on that same principle congestion in the urban body induces abnormalities and civic disorders. This is demonstrated by the feverish life which characterizes the modern urban community; the denial by the modern city to the citizen of the prime essentials of normal living, which are:

Enough land on which to live, work, and play.

Enough light and air and the means of sanitation to keep human beings wholesome.

Normal comradeship, normal recreation, and a fair chance in the world for every man, woman, and child.

What City Planning Should Provide.—City planning for Cincinnati, then, must seek to provide for Cincinnatians these prime essentials. It will be necessary to plan the creation of new devices and the remaking of existing devices, to the end that there shall be an avoidance of overcrowding of persons and commercial and industrial utilities, so as to prevent and cure congestion.

To this end, true city planning will seek to diffuse population where congestion exists or is threatened, so that every citizen may have the fundamental essentials he requires in order to live the happiest and most helpful life, and best to serve his day and generation, and the generations yet unborn.

City Planning Is Evolutionary.— Intelligent city planning for Cincinnati does not mean revolutionary procedure; not the sudden tearing down of the existing order. Iconoclasm is not city planning. City planning is evolutionary, constructive. It sees in Cincinnati a constant change; and it seeks to direct that growth in an orderly manner and according to scientific methods.

It begins with the economic life, and on that foundation builds towards an ideal sociological order. Then its purposes to superimpose the æsthetic —on the principle that art is order, and that true municipal and social art needs order and economy as their basis. It knows of no better expression of this princi-

ple than this: "You should not seek to lay a robe of beauty over a body of ugliness."

And Cincinnati, in spite of its wonderfully picturesque possibilities, in common with all our cities, has not avoided the ugliness which was inevitably produced by the helter-skelter, haphazard, unplanned growth of the past.

Future Possibilities.—True city planning, as the years pass by, will bring order into this state of partial chaos. It will cure the congestions, diffuse the population, give proper housing conditions, easier methods for doing business, and make of Cincinnati a better place in which to live, work, and play; and, taking advantage of the unique lay of the land and the presence of the Ohio River, make her at the same time one of the beautiful cities of the world.